The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 18, 1889.

The Week.

THE Secretary of the Treasury on the 13th inst. broke the monotony of the recent calls of bond purchases by accepting a round amount of 4 per cents, for which he paid 129. For a long time past, the Department seems to have tabooed the 4 per cents, confining its purchases to the 4½s, and paying 108 for that issue. At the beginning of April, there are but $155,000,000 of the 4½s outstanding, against $681,000,000 of the fours; so that the area of purchase is very largely increased by the addition of the latter class. The purchase may be taken as an indication that Secretary Windom has now got down to business, and the time is therefore suitable for some remarks as to the policy of the Treasury towards the banks and the money-market. And first, it deserves to be recorded that Mr. Fairchild was the first Secretary of the Treasury to develop the system of Government deposits with the national banks as a mode of regular and permanent relief to the money market, in mitigation of the constant injury inflicted upon all trade and industry by the preposterous hoards of the Treasury. No Secretary is likely hereafter to undo this work, but Mr. Windom has an opportunity to improve it, and in two ways. He can rule, in accordance with the uniform practice before the decision of the late Comptroller of the Currency, that Government deposits require no reserve in lawful money; the pledge of United States bonds being ample, and so considered in the statute. And he can make his deposits at once more business-like and more favorable to the Treasury by requiring a small rate of interest upon them, say 2 per cent., if, upon consideration, such a course shall be found to be lawful. With $45,000,000 of bonds held as security for such deposits, and some $50,000,000 of available surplus, the requirement of interest would tend to facilitate bond purchases, and ample notice should be given of the intended change.

With regard to the bond purchases, it must be remembered that the 4½ per cents fall within the control of the Treasury in the autumn of 1891, and Mr. Windom will doubtless be inclined to repeat with this issue the success which he had in his former incumbency of his present office. Whatever amount of the 4½ per cents remains alive at the date of their maturity in 1891 can be extended on call at the pleasure of the Government, and probably at as low a rate as 2½ per cent. It seems desirable, therefore, that the 4 per cent. bonds should be the bulk of the Treasury purchases until that time; provided, of course, that they are not held too high. The question of interest on the Treasury deposits has a direct relation to this.

Three other New York editors are now added to the list of those who are in search of office. Prof. Charles E. Fitch of the Rochester *Democrat and Chronicle* aspires to be made a Collector of Internal Revenue; Col. W. J. Morgan of the Buffalo *Commercial Advertiser* hopes to be made Collector of the Port of Buffalo; and the Hon. John M. Francis of the Troy *Times* is so eager to get almost any kind of office that he has been to Washington in person in search of it. The number of Republican editors who have been subsidized by office, and the number who are said to be hoping for subsidy, now make a formidable list, as will be seen by the following enumeration:

SUBSIDIZED.

Whitelaw Reid, editor New York *Tribune*, Mission to France.

Allen Thorndike Rice, editor *North American Review*, Mission to Russia.

Murat Halstead, editor Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*, Mission to Germany.

John A. Enander, editor Chicago *Hemlandet*, Mission to Denmark.

J. S. Clarkson, editor *Iowa State Register*, First-Assistant Postmaster-General.

John Hicks, editor Oshkosh *Northwestern*, Mission to Peru.

John C. New, editor Indianapolis *Journal*, Consul-General at London.

Ellis H. Roberts, editor Utica *Herald*, Assistant United States Treasurer at New York.

REPORTED AS SEEKING SUBSIDY.

Elliott F. Shepard, editor *Mail and Express*.

John M. Francis, editor Troy *Times*.

Charles E. Fitch, editor Rochester *Democrat and Chronicle*.

W. J. Morgan, editor Buffalo *Commercial Advertiser*.

The effect of the subsidy is perceptible in many ways, but especially in the treatment by the subsidized journals of the appointment of Van Cott as Postmaster of New York. Every one of them defends and approves it. It is a fact, also, that the newspapers which were boldest in inventing in advance lying excuses for Mr. Pearson's removal, were the Rochester *Democrat and Chronicle* and the *Troy Times*.

Gen. Joseph C. Jackson of the Union League Club has, according to the *Commercial Advertiser*,

"been put forward as a candidate for United States District Attorney of this District, and his appointment has been asked for by a justice of the United States Supreme Court and by prominent journalists, lawyers, and business men, including Democrats as well as Republicans."

He ought not to get the place, however, unless he subscribed more handsomely to the campaign fund than we think he did—that is, at least as handsomely as Mr. Allen Thorndike Rice, whose contribution, which we thought was only $10,000, was, it appears, $15,000. The United States District Attorneyship at this point is worth more to a lawyer than the Russian mission to an editor, and ought to be down in the tariff at least at $15,000. We would not, were we in President Harrison's place, let Gen. Jackson have it for a cent less. If he has not paid the money already, he can send it to Quay *nunc pro tunc*.

The statements attributed to Secretary Noble in a recent interview as to his intention to make a clean sweep of the Democrats in the Interior Department as rapidly as possible, and fill the places thus made vacant with Republicans, were so extraordinary that we refused at first to accept them. But the Secretary has declined to avail himself of an opportunity to set himself right if he was misreported, and the correspondent of the Hartford *Times* quotes him as standing by what he was originally reported as saying. Corporal Tanner, the new Commissioner of Pensions, had tried to remove Gen. James B. Coit, a brave Connecticut soldier, who was a Democrat, and Mr. Noble had overruled him. The correspondent of the *Times* asked him what this action signified, and the Secretary replied: "My order to the Pension Commissioner was only intended to prevent the removal of such a man as Gen. Coit. I am not willing to see a man that fought all through the war, as did Coit, and who carries a lot of lead in his body as a memento, asked to step down and out, even though he may be a Democrat. But I am willing and anxious to see the Democrats turned out and their places filled by good Republicans. Tanner is no more of a partisan than I am. There are about 150 Democratic special examiners who can be put out and who will make room for Republicans. That's plain enough, isn't it? I am no Mugwump nor civil-service devotee. I believe in giving the places to Republicans, whenever opportunity offers without injury to the service."

It is very likely now that the seventh State to enact a ballot-reform law will be Minnesota. The lower house of the Legislature has passed, by a practically unanimous vote, the measure known as the Keyes bill, which is a complete application of the Australian system, and very similar to the laws of Massachusetts, Indiana, and other States. There is a chance that Connecticut may be the eighth State to fall into line, but the hostility of the politicians of both parties in the Legislature is causing delay, in spite of the strong pressure of public sentiment in favor of the reform. In New York State it is amusing to observe the efforts of the Hill organs to create sentiment in support of his expected veto of the Saxton bill by printing in full Mr. Sheehan's absurd speech, in which he denounced the Australian system, and favored an American system as more worthy the confidence of the American people. The great argument in favor of the Australian system is that it is not an experimental one. It has been in successful operation for thirty years, and one of its most salutary effects has been the suppression of "dealing" at the polls, an American institution which Mr. Sheehan and his friend the Governor are most anxious not to see disturbed.

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The American Federation of Labor has issued, or is about to issue, an address in favor of the eight-hour movement. The address states that there are 1,000,000 men, who would be glad to work, unemployed in the United States. These people, it says, must be supported, and "it would be much cheaper to keep them employed than to keep them in idleness." This is the doctrine we have always held in respect to the inmates of our State prisons. Whether the American Federation of Labor holds that it is cheaper to keep criminals in idleness than to keep them employed, although the contrary rule is sound as to everybody else, we do not know; but we observe that every member of the Legislature who so holds, pretends to speak in the interest and with the authority of Labor. Would it not be a happy solution of the labor problem to enlarge the penitentiaries and make them comfortable and call them asylums or retreats, and then send all the unemployed with their families there, provided they were willing to go? Of course the idea of disgrace would not attach to a person who goes to prison voluntarily and as a means of relieving the labor market. But if it is advisable on purely economical grounds to support 50,000 men in idleness in State prisons and county jails, would it not be wise to support a million in the same way? Does the mere fact that a man has committed a crime make his support at the public expense desirable in the interest of Labor, while if he had remained honest it would not be desirable?

Our correspondent from South Carolina, on another page, makes out a strong case for his State in answer to our article on "Negro Convicts"; but, in spite of his explanations, we are not yet convinced. An examination of the Governors' reports on Pardons for 1885, 1886, and 1887 shows such an apparent recklessness in dealing with human liberty on the part of all connected with the courts, that much explanation will be necessary to remove the imputation these reports cast upon the State. It is true, we do not have before us all the papers in the cases, but we are certainly justified in assuming that the Governor is satisfied of the substantial accuracy of the statements upon which he bases his pardons, and that while they may not be wholly right, they are, in the main, correct. In any case, it ought not to be possible in any community for a man to be sent to prison for life without any evidence being heard against him, especially where it is alleged that he was induced to plead guilty while in liquor; nor should a person be sent to prison for even five years for stealing ten pounds of flour or a suit of clothes. Can our correspondent point to the case of any white man receiving such a punishment? It is probably true that the reasons on which the pardon is based are not known in all cases to the juries at the trial, but it can hardly be said that justice is dispensed in a court where, as in one case in 1886, the prosecuting attorney states that he was satisfied at the trial that material evidence had been withheld. In a Northern State, a prosecuting attorney would *nol. pros.* at once such a case as that of Prince Williams; but his case is matched by that of Frank Peters, convicted of the same offence in 1887. He had lived with a woman nearly twenty years "after the custom of slavery," and, becoming alarmed at the number of prosecutions for adultery, was formally married on the advice of white friends. Nevertheless, as a woman with whom he lived as a slave was alive, he was convicted, although this woman gave testimony in his favor. Of course, this case may be susceptible of explanation, but it ought never to have been tried unless a salutary effect on the colored race was expected of it.

Our correspondent says that the statute of 1883 was passed for the special benefit of negroes, but it seems at least curious that the discretion was given to the jury and not to the judge, as in Northern States; and it is to be noted that there is no case in the report where, so far as can be seen, a jury has recommended a negro to mercy under this act, and there are cases where the failure of the jury to make such a recommendation is urged as a reason for a pardon. It may be that crime has gradually diminished among the negroes since 1876, but it is strange to find 843 negro convicts in 1888 as against 575 in 1878, and that 76 persons under twenty years of age were received at the Penitentiary in 1878 and 196 in 1887. We would do no injustice to South Carolina, but our correspondent will agree that the matter deserves further investigation. We will add that we owe to the abolition of slavery the wholesome amenability of the South to outside criticism of a disinterested and friendly kind, which is one of the most potent forces for the regeneration of that section. Since our article was written, Gov. Richardson of South Carolina, in more or less conscious deference to this opinion, has given full and free pardon to two negroes, the first persons who had ever been convicted of murder by lynching. Their victim was a white man who had fatally outraged a colored girl. We gladly record this instance of a wise clemency, which the Governor takes care shall not be misunderstood.

The British finances show a surplus of £2,586,000 during the last fiscal year. This is due principally to an improvement in the foreign trade, which shows an increase of about 5 per cent., while that of England's Continental rivals shows a decrease. The two systems of free trade and protection are thus brought into sharp contrast. England's most persevering rival is Germany, and it was thought a few years ago that the latter was making gains at the expense of the former. But the reverse has proved to be true, and there is every reason to anticipate that England's gain will be in proportion to Germany's efforts to "protect home industry." The drunkard's remedy of more drink for a failing constitution is always and everywhere demanded by the protected classes. Movements are already on foot in Germany to increase the duties on cereals, to check the increased importation of food. In France the duty on rye, the chief article of food of the peasantry, has lately been doubled, and a differential duty has been added on top of this increase in order to favor French shipping. That is, the duty on rye, formerly 15 francs per ton, is now raised to 30 francs, with 30 francs additional if the rye is grown in any country out of Europe and imported from any country in Europe. This is considered a great triumph of Protection. Everywhere except in England the forces of Government are applied with increasing rigor to the task of piling taxes on consumption, which are always taxes on the poor and mostly for the benefit of the rich. The policy of republican France is in this respect curiously like that of the old monarchy anterior to the Revolution. Restrictions upon trade and industry were the prime cause of the misery which led to that great upheaval. The Government was a corporation of rich and titled men who made laws for their own benefit. The Government of to-day is a corporation of rich and untitled men who are making laws to the same purpose. We would not affirm, however, that we are any better than France in this respect, or that our laws are preferable to hers as to restrictions on trade or means taken by Congress to tax the many for the benefit of the few.

England's Treasury surplus is to be spent in increased naval strength, and the like use and disposition will be made of any other surpluses she may have during the next five years. There will probably be borrowing in one form or another before the intended expenditure of £20,000,000 for new war ships shall have been carried out. Mr. Goschen, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, has proposed an additional tax of 1 per cent. on inheritances, and a small increase of the beer tax, but these will hardly cover the outlay within the time set for the completion of the work, unless British trade shall show a very large gain in the coming five years. The *Economist* thinks that not more than £400,000 to £500,000 increase can be looked for from this source, while it is possible that there may be none at all. Nevertheless, the intention to put the British navy on a footing of equality with the combined force of any two of the Continental Powers will be carried into effect. It is only a question of money, and England has the money, or can easily get it. And thus the surplus of this world's goods and comforts which free trade brings goes, after all, into ships, guns, and bombs. But in the present stage of civilization there seems to be no option. We have not advanced so far beyond the savage state as outward appearances would indicate. The meaning of this great expenditure for the paraphernalia of death and destruction is, that if England does not have it, some other nation may rob her, just as the ancient Vandals, Goths, and Huns robbed each other.

The English Ministry are in nearly as bad a logical plight over the convention they have concluded with the sugar-bounty gov-

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ernments of the Continent as our high-tariff men in the last canvass. France, Germany, Austria, Belgium, and Holland have been paying bounties to their own sugar-producers amounting to about $45,000,000 a year. The result of this has been that the English market was constantly supplied with extraordinarily cheap sugar from abroad, to the great delight of the sugar-consumers, but to the great chagrin of the sugar-refiners. The cheap sugar, part of the cost of which was thus paid by foreigners, not only carried comfort into the households of the poor, but has developed a confectionery business which now employs nearly double the number of hands engaged in refining. But the refiners have been able to get the Government to enter into an agreement with some of the above-mentioned Powers under which England, in consideration of their stopping the bounties, undertakes to exclude sugar coming from countries which persist in paying them—that is, from France, the United States, and Brazil. Sir Thomas Farrer, the Permanent Secretary of the Board of Trade, whose attacks on this convention have been admirable specimens of economical dialectics, points out that it will deprive the British public of the benefit of the bounties—that is, raise the price of sugar to the consumer. But Baron de Worms maintains that it will not raise the price to the consumer, because the bounty, he says, went into the pockets of the producers. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach made a declaration to the same effect in the House of Commons the other day, having previously stated that one effect of the convention would be to bring into England largely increased quantities of colonial sugar. On this Mr. Gladstone took him up, and asked him how could this be if the convention would not raise the price in the English market. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach made answer that "this appeared to him to be a matter of argument in debate," which was received with "great laughter and derisive cheers." Senator Hoar and some other high-tariff orators were between the horns of just the same dilemma during our last canvass. They had to maintain, in the same breath, to the workingmen, that prices had to be kept up by the tariff in order to enable manufacturers to pay high wages, and that prices were not raised by the tariff, and therefore did not increase the cost of living; but we do not think they ever saw the joke of their argument.

There was a curious debate in the British House of Commons a week ago on the condition of the poor in the great towns. It was brought on by Mr. Broadhurst, the workingman member of the House, and all he had to say was that there was a great and regrettable drift of population into the cities, and that the poor in these places were badly lodged and fed, and that the Government should do something about it. This something was, however, simply the provision of better lodgings and the furnishing of a free lunch to the children at the public schools. There is no doubt that there is in all the English large cities a large and increasing mass of poverty, although the number of paupers in proportion to population is not nearly as great as it was forty years ago. The same complaint is made in nearly every civilized country. In the United States as well as in Europe poor people flock into the cities in regrettable numbers. But the remedy proposed by philanthropists like Mr. Broadhurst and a great many others must strike thoughtful people as little short of irrational. It is neither more nor less than to make cities more attractive to the poor—to supply better lodgings for less money to the fathers and mothers, and give the children free meals as well as free schooling, to say nothing of parks, gardens, cheap fares, and Saturday music. To offer these things to the poor and then cry out because the poor crowd into the towns is surely very absurd. The truth is, that if even half the Radical programme for the government of cities were carried out, we should very soon reach the "panem et circenses" of the Roman Empire, without having conquered provinces to draw on for the cost. To make any scheme for permanently improving the condition of the urban poor a success, it should be accompanied by some plan of keeping down the urban population. Of course this is impossible. All Socialistic schemes ignore studiously the question of population, although it lies at the root of the labor problem. They act on the street-car conductor's assumption that there is always room for a few more. The answer to the question they are constantly asking, why machinery has not done more to improve the condition of the working class, is simply that the working class pursues the machines with so many children that they cannot get very far ahead with their production.

The rules of procedure under which the French Senate is acting as a court of impeachment of Boulanger and some of his supporters, have intrusted the preparation of the indictment, or "instruction préparatoire," to a commission of nine, and they conduct the case as "managers," to use our term, at the trial. The trial is public, and is a great opportunity for the display of a kind of oratory in which Frenchmen of all classes delight. As to the mode of finding a verdict, there was considerable discussion, many being desirous of following the practice of the old Chamber of Peers under the Restoration, in which in all trials of this sort each Peer first cast a provisional or tentative vote, accompanied with a few remarks, and the final and irrevocable vote was taken subsequently. This plan was, however, rejected. There will be but one ballot, and it will be final and open—that is, in secret session, but by public utterance. What the penalty may be we do not learn, but probably anything the Senate pleases, from the guillotine to simple exile.

German politics are somewhat convulsed over a new press law which is now under consideration by a special committee of the Federal Council, and will shortly be, if it has not been already, submitted to the Reichstag. The proposed bill, by way of shutting up the Socialists, forbids all hostile discussion in the press of the "fundamental bases" of society — that is, religion, the family, and property — and all articles calculated to excite "hatred or contempt of the Government," this last provision being copied almost textually from some of Louis Napoleon's legislation after 1851. The German editors of nearly every shade of opinion are violently excited over it. They ask whether it might not be held that the mere recital of certain facts, without any comment on them, was calculated to "excite hatred and contempt of the Government"; and whether a discussion of the principle of religion, property, and family from the scientific point of view, such as Kant and Fichte indulged in, might not be construed as attacks on them. The penalties attached to the bill are very serious, the second offence rendering the journal liable to suppression, or, in other words, to the confiscation, it might be, of a valuable property. The main reliance of the press is on the National Liberals in the Reichstag, who will probably insist on some modification in the interest of scientific discussion, if of nothing else. Fancy Murat Halstead in such an atmosphere, full of double-leaded articles about not only the fundamental bases of society, but the whole structure, from garret to cellar.

The message of President Diaz to the Mexican Congress at the opening of its present session, April 1, devotes a good deal of space to the financial situation of the country. He dwells with satisfaction on the improving credit of Mexico in Europe, announces that the German syndicate are about to take the remaining $17,000,000 of the loan negotiated last year, and predicts the complete refunding of the debts of 1851 and 1886 within a short time. He does not conceal the fact that Mexico's income still keeps up its chronic habit of falling behind the expenses, and says that the national finances cannot yet be exactly called prosperous. A most encouraging proposal is that which he declares is to be carried out, viz., to cut down the army and reduce the military budget for the coming financial year by at least a million. With the cost of the army eating up more than a third of the national revenue, as it has done for years, the only wonder is that it has not known the shears long before this; though it is also a testimony to the solidification of Diaz's power, and the settled condition of the country, that he now dares to do what has not been attempted for half a generation. The President gives the customary review of domestic and foreign affairs, the story being one in general of domestic tranquillity and progress and foreign peace and friendship. The Argentine Republic is about to send a Minister to Mexico, for the first time. Japan has agreed to a treaty of commerce and friendship. A postal arrangement is to be made with Great Britain whereby small packages of merchandise can be sent through the mails; this will put English exporters on a par with our own again.

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OUR NATIONAL LOTTERY.

SIXTY or seventy years ago, State lotteries were thought a perfectly legitimate mode of raising money for the Government, and gambling was looked on as a harmless amusement. Within that period, however, a great change has come over the public mind. Lotteries have been prohibited in England, France, and Belgium, and in most of the States of the Union, and gambling-houses are put in nearly every civilized State in the same category with brothels, and are exposed to the full rigors of police suppression. In all the churches and in all moral and religious circles in this country and in England, the gambler shares the fate of the drunkard and debauchee as an object of social reprobation. He is treated as an unfit companion for men, and as an unfit husband for a woman, and as a man of doubtful credit and an unsafe business partner.

Now, why is this? Why do the leading Christian governments refuse any longer to raise money by lotteries, or to permit anybody else to raise it within their jurisdiction? Why have all the great public gambling establishments in Europe, except Monte Carlo, been suppressed? Why does the English statute prohibit lotteries, as "a common nuisance by which children, servants, and other unwary persons are ruined"? Why is the keeper of a gambling-house treated as a criminal of a very bad type? Why is Anthony Comstock permitted in this State to pursue the vendors of lottery tickets just as he pursues the vendors of obscene books and engravings? The reason is, that experience has shown that in the vast majority of cases the man who gambles is on the road to ruin; that, to use the illustration of J. B. Say, the French economist, the legislator who sanctions a lottery "votes a certain number of thefts and suicides"; that, as another French economist, M. Lavollée, says, "a lottery is a business based on chance, in which wealth, when acquired, is not the fruit of any labor, but is acquired only by another's ruin, and is incapable of producing anything"; that any one who wins money in gambling is apt to become incapable afterwards of close attention to any regular industry, and discards prudence, in the belief that he will be able to extricate himself from any scrape by a stroke of luck.

In saying all this, we are going over ground that is very familiar to every lawyer and moralist in the United States. No arguments on any question of public policy are more trite than the arguments against gambling. We recall them to-day simply for the purpose of asking the pastors and teachers of the country, and especially President Harrison's pastor in Indianapolis, who took leave of him the other day in church with many prayers and good wishes, to consider for a moment what difference there is, in the effect on public and private morals, between a Government lottery and that quadrennial scramble for office which the President has been superintending — has, indeed, encouraged and even invited—during the past month at Washington, and from which he is now seeking refuge in a short and undeserved vacation. A lottery fills the minds of large numbers of people with confident expectations of sudden wealth to be acquired without work. The quadrennial scramble fills probably half a million of people with the expectation of salaries to be obtained suddenly also, not by fitness for the places, but by favor, or intrigue, or luck, and makes their regular calling at their own homes, to which they were bred, and in which they are capable, seem mean and dull and distasteful. A lottery induces large numbers of people to steal, or borrow, or use their savings in a venture of uncertain issue, and pending the issue fills their lives with suspense and anxiety, and fills those dependent upon them with foreboding. The quadrennial scramble causes many thousands of persons to steal, borrow, or use their savings in going to Washington and living at hotels, in an agony of mingled hope and fear, for whole weeks, until their resources are exhausted or until the President, who has encouraged them to come there, shuts the door in their faces, and goes off to recover from the effects of their importunity. Behind them at home are tens of thousands more, who cannot afford the journey, but go through all the gambler's tortures in their own dwellings, while bombarding their Congressmen with letters and petitions. During this interval the idea becomes more and more firmly rooted in their minds that their own Government, for which so many hundred thousand men have died, is a huge gambling establishment such as Homburg used to be, in which any man by trying his luck may draw "a plum." About the effect of their operations on the efficiency of the Administration, or on the general welfare of the country, they no more concern themselves than a Monte Carlo gambler about the effects of his winnings on the resources of the bank.

It is objected to lotteries, as well as to all forms of gambling, that they harden the heart and dry up the fountains of human pity by making some people rich at the cost of others' ruin. The quadrennial scramble does just the same thing. It makes every man engaged in it as selfish and remorseless as a brigand. There is hardly one of them who is not seeking to have some other man's bread taken from him, without the smallest regard to his necessities or his feelings. In fact, the winners generally openly make merry over the misfortunes of the defeated—an indecency in which ordinary gamblers usually do not indulge. We know of a case at this moment where a man enjoying a large income from a prosperous business has been spending a month in Washington, "working" to secure the dismissal of an able, efficient officer who has been long in the service, and who is dependent on his salary, in order that he himself may get the place. His motive is and must be exactly that of a gambler—the satisfaction of winning in a game of chance something which he does not need—and he has no more pity for the faithful veteran whom he seeks to displace than "the bank" has for the youth who goes out to shoot himself after losing his all at rouge-et-noir. The gambler's passion extinguishes human sympathy as nothing else does, not even the anger of armed combat.

In fact, it is hardly extravagant to say of our national lottery what John Wesley said of slavery, that "it is the sum of all villanies." At all events it may certainly be said of it, that there is hardly any villany which it does not illustrate or exemplify. It treats us to some of the worst horrors of war in the midst of profound peace—its treachery, its deceit, its brutal selfishness, its indifference to everything but victory. We hear every week that the clergy of the United States are looking about for topics of the day which they can safely discuss in the pulpit. They ransack the newspapers and the reviews for some great social or political evil to analyze or attack. Well, here is one which seems to be peculiarly suited to their weapons, because all the church-goers in the country are more or less responsible for its existence; because hundreds of thousands of professing Christians, beginning with the President, connive at or practise it, and because it is perhaps the most debauching custom for the youth of the country which any peaceful commercial community has ever either adopted or permitted. It exists solely through the deadness of the national conscience.

MANNING AND FAIRCHILD.

THE Washington correspondent of the *Times* said on Monday week:

"No decision has yet been reached by Secretary of the Treasury Windom as to how he will act upon the request of the woollen-goods manufacturers, that worsted goods may be so classified that they shall pay as high customs duties as woollen fabrics. It is quite possible that no formal decision will be made at all. None ever has been made by the Treasury Department on that point, *the present classification having been originally made by one of the collectors of customs.* It is within the power of a collector to make just such a classification of worsteds as the woollen-manufacturers are seeking; and after the new Administration has got into working order, at the New York Custom-house for example, Collector Erhardt might change the present classification when the opportunity offered."

The decision that worsteds are, in trade and commerce, unlike woollens, was of course first made by a collector of customs recognizing the nomenclature of dealers which a tariff law is supposed to use. The correctness of that decision, made more than fifty years ago by a collector, was protested against, but upheld by the Treasury in 1834, put in suit, carried to the Supreme Court, elaborately argued for the Treasury by Attorney-General Butler, decided against the Treasury in 1836, and reported in 1837 in Elliott vs. Swartwout (10 Peters Reports, 137). The question came up, under the tariff law of 1832, on *worsted* shawls. The Collector levied 50 per cent., classifying them as "manufactures of *wool*," but the importer insisted that the shawls were only liable to 10 per cent. under the phrase, "*worsted*-stuff goods, shawls," etc. The Court put its decision against the Treasury on the ground that the shawls were not a manufacture of *wool*, but of a distinct article, which was *worsted*.

If anything can be established by a judi-

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cial decision, it is that worsted is not woollen. Congress can say that the two shall each pay the same tax, but it has not done so. The fundamental difference between woollen and worsted rests on the crossing and interlacing of the fibres in preparing the former, while in the latter the fibres are treated by processes bringing them into smooth parallel relationship to each other. Naturally, the Court will stand by its former decision, and will assume that Congress legislated in knowledge of it. An executive increase of rates on worsted cloths will create an enormous Custom-house refund, bearing six per cent. interest. Now let us consider what this "refund" means.

In the report of the First Auditor of the Treasury for 1888, there are six items of expenditure by the Treasury which deserve examination by taxation-reformers, tariff-reformers, surplus-reducers, reform clubs, voters of every sort, and especially Democratic voters. They are these:

Expenses of collecting customs revenue	$7,291,463 02
Detection and prevention of revenue frauds	24,021 72
Excess of deposits	4,623,674 68
Debentures and drawbacks	5,268,635 15
Duties refunded	37,917 93
Judgments satisfied	932,620 41
	$18,183,332 91

The last two items, of nearly a million of dollars, are covered by *a permanent* standing appropriation, in section 3687 of the Revised Statutes, for "duties or other money paid under protest." The appropriation is unlimited in quantity, and stands year after year. If a collector has exacted money as duties on imports, and the importer has protested and appealed against the exaction, the Secretary of the Treasury can order the money repaid out of that appropriation. That is a great and a dangerous power. There is no restraint on its exercise. The Treasury can confirm the collector's exaction, and thereby similar exactions will continue at the custom-houses till the sum is large in amount. Then it can by the Treasury be ordered to be paid back, all the money going to the importer, and none to the consumers who really paid it. If the legality of the exaction is tried in court and judgments are entered against the collectors, then the Treasury pays the principal of those judgments out of the same appropriation, and the interest out of another appropriation. The Federal laws authorize interest to be computed at the rate allowed by the State law, and to be included in the judgment, but for that an annual appropriation is needed which is hidden in the first of the above items.

The third item comes of a custom-house rule requiring an importer to deposit a sum, calculated on the face of his entry, which is held to await the final liquidation, when the excess is returned to him by a check to his order.

The fourth item explains itself.

When Secretary Manning came to the Treasury, he found some 2,300 suits pending in the Federal Court in this city for money illegally exacted, on protectionist theories, as customs taxes. He accomplished the creation of a new Federal Judge who (he intended) should do nothing else than try those suits. The sum involved therein is many millions. He continued the rates of duty which had been fixed by his predecessors, and suits went on against such exaction; but, as new questions were presented, he ordered the *lowest* rate to be levied, as became a tariff-reformer, and thereon no new suits were begun. When he died, the Treasury relapsed into its old habit, begun in protection days, of grabbing all it could clutch. During the last year nearly a million was refunded, chiefly on judgments, which shows that the illegal exactions by Maynard are in suit and undecided. Refunds thereon will come later, and are likely to come in abundance. The protectionists got what they wished when he ordered the increased taxes levied.

It is plain to see that the question presented by a custom-house protest and appeal is chiefly a *law* question, to be decided by the Department of Justice, and not by Maynard, for its true decision depends on what the Supreme Court will probably say. Maynard's opinion could be of little worth in regard to that. If the Supreme Court is likely to condemn the exaction, it should not be made. Every decision by the courts against the Treasury is evidence of bad administration and an injustice to consumers of imported articles. The Treasury loses nothing by a refund, because it only releases what it should not have exacted; but the consumer loses all, while the importer, with his claim-agent, pockets all.

Mr. Fairchild and Mr. Maynard, failing to see that as smugglers are the regulators of customs taxes, so claim-agents are the best regulators of Treasury decisions inflicting rates in doubtful cases, have, during their brief term, denounced to Congress custom-house lawyers in much the same terms as smugglers. But every one sees that had it not been for the power to bring suits, there would have been no check whatever to be exercised by the judicial power on the decisions of Fairchild and Maynard. Naval-Officer Burt, we are surprised to see by his recent letter to the *Evening Post*, advocates legislation by Congress which will in effect make the interpretation of taxing laws solely an executive question, from the decision of which the courts will be practically excluded if the protectionists have their way. What chance of justice will taxpayers have if Harrison shall appoint (as he probably would) such executive officers in the interest of protection? It is bad enough to have protectionist legislation, but even worse to have protectionist interpretation such as there has been by Maynard.

The existing system is defective, we concede, but chiefly so because customs and Treasury officers will not heed the mandate of the courts, which permits only the lowest rate of taxation in cases of ambiguity. That was Manning's rule. A disregard of the judicial mandate creates the suits, supports the Custom-house lawyers, and makes the scandal and trouble. It gives rise to the increase of taxes which has recently flourished under executive orders, to be condemned in the end by the courts, and followed, soon or late, by vast refunds, benefiting manufacturers and importers alike, but injuring consumers and taxpayers alike. Reform is needed in that branch of the customs service, and in the direction begun by Manning, Cleveland's wise and great finance minister. He clearly saw that the place in which to begin tariff reform and revenue reform was in the Treasury, and by putting a stop to the interpretation of ambiguous customs laws in the interest of protectionists. Four years of that reform would have given great relief to the country! It seems, on first sight, a contradiction to say that the interests coincide of Wanamaker the importer (if he can get a refund) and the domestic manufacturers of silk trimmings; but, nevertheless, they do coincide. What the protectionists seek is a levy of the highest rate in order to keep out foreign goods! What the Wanamakers seek is a refund!

THE USES OF A NAVY.

THE *Century Magazine* for April contains a note of warning in its editorial department against the upbuilding of "Jingoism" in this country as a consequence of increased armament. "There are," it says, "in every country, our own being no exception, newspapers and public men who are always ready to float on the crest of a wave of popular passion, no matter whither it may be driving, or on what inhospitable shore it is to break in tumultuous surf at last. The case will bring its peculiar temptations for the United States, for the navy is just that branch of the service for which our people have a traditional weakness, and on which they will spend the public money with least complaint." The *Century* does not take the absurd position, that we ought to expose ourselves to attack merely because the possession of an adequate naval force might lead us into wars which would otherwise be avoided. It points out both the dangers of too little and of too much armament, and expresses the hope that proper provision for defence may not be made "the means for transferring the once great neutral republic to the list of quasi-belligerents, who now give an added stigma to the term civilization by their system of permanent armament."

The question is a serious one indeed. It would seem to be capable of solution in part by directing our efforts first and chiefly to means for making ourselves secure at home, rather than to steps for making ourselves formidable abroad. It is doubtful if we could within twenty years put ourselves in a position to cope with the foremost naval Powers of Europe. But we could put our chief harbors in a state of defence, with the aid of a small but thoroughly modern navy, in much less time. We could not attack other nations with our fortifications, but we could ward off their attacks. The chance of our being attacked is very small in any case, and the chance of our being attacked by second or third-rate Powers, which are most commonly employed as bugbears to urge us on to large naval expendi-

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ture, is almost nothing. Nevertheless, we must be prepared for emergencies, but in such manner (if such a thing be possible) as not to stimulate an aggressive spirit which may finally put us in the company of the great war Powers of the globe, whose populations are ground between the upper and the nether millstones of war taxes and personal military service.

The Chicago *Tribune* finds a reason for a large navy in the fact that we have no foreign commerce to speak of. It has been commonly held and believed that merchant ships and foreign trade precede and, in some sense, necessitate the building of war ships. The view of our Chicago contemporary is the opposite of this:

"It is the control of the seas," it says, "which gives the control of the commerce of the world. The fact that it was Carthaginian or Roman or English war ships that ruled the ocean, settled the question who stood at the head of commercial nations. It is the power to protect the merchantman which determines in the long run who shall have the most merchantmen. The United States has at present no ships with which to protect and no vessels to be protected. Therefore, the foreign policy of the present Administration is, first, war ships."

It may be true in a semi-barbarous age, when might makes right, and when commerce is in large part spoliation and piracy, that a naval force is a prerequisite of successful foreign trade. But it is not true in the present age of the world. If we had under our flag to-day the combined navies of England and France, we should not have one ton more of foreign commerce than we now have. No American ship is prevented from getting a cargo because of a lack of ironclads to guard her. No builder is prevented from constructing ships, no merchant is prevented from executing orders for goods for the uttermost parts of the earth by reason of a shortage of naval force. No convoys of merchant fleets are ever heard of nowadays. Nobody thinks of battering open foreign markets with cannon. Little Norway and little Holland find no drawbacks to their commerce in the want of a naval force. Nor does Italy or Russia find new or better markets in the augmentation of its navy. If the Chicago *Tribune's* theory were correct, France ought to have gained largely upon England in the race for commercial supremacy in recent years, because she has gained largely in naval strength. But the very reverse has been true. In spite of naval expenditure and of heavy subsidies, French commerce has declined, while English commerce shows the same relative gain that it had in former years. The reason is not far to seek. Naval expenditure and subsidies have to be paid for by taxation which bears upon all the national industries, commerce included. Moreover, hostile tariffs which impose unnecessary burdens on imports are in effect burdens on exports, diminishing the amount of pay that a nation gets for the goods she sells to foreigners. France burdens herself heavily in this way, as we do also. To suppose that we can offset this loss by spending a lot of money for a navy is a very odd conceit, and one which we should not expect to win popularity in districts a thousand miles from the seaboard.

GOVERNMENTAL LAWLESSNESS.

One passage in Mr. Bryce's book has attracted a good deal of attention from political philosophers abroad, though comparatively little from Americans, and yet it touches one of the most important problems in our political situation. He is inquiring how the machinery of State government is made to work when the legislators are indifferent to their public obligations, and have not enough private reputation to make them sensible to shame—that is to say, how is a State Constitution to be carried out if the Governor and Legislature do not choose to obey it? This is, of course, a question which has not greatly troubled publicists hitherto, because in all political discussions the willingness of political communities to obey their organic law has been taken for granted. The successful working of the Federal Constitution, for instance, depends on the willingness of the States to elect Senators and Representatives, and on the willingness of the Senators and Representatives to meet, and debate, and pass laws, and vote appropriations, and confirm nominations. What would happen if there were a refusal in any of these cases, nobody knows, and nobody has seriously considered. The contingency seems too remote and improbable for discussion. If you mention it to anybody, he dismisses it as an academical question, or says: "Oh, that would be revolution; I will not consider what I would do in case of revolution, until I am compelled. Life is too short for such speculations."

This very thing, however, happens in some of the States, and when Mr. Bryce asks for the remedy, nobody is able to tell him. When he reads the Constitution of this State, for instance, directing the Legislature to enact certain laws, and learns that the Legislature totally disregards these directions, or that, if it passes the required laws, the Governor vetoes them, and inquires what we do in such cases to make the organic law respected, nobody can answer him. On this he remarks:

"What the legislatures of the worst States show is not merely the need for the existence of a sound public opinion—for such a public opinion exists—but the need for methods by which it can be brought into efficient action upon representatives who, if they are left to themselves, and are not individually persons with a sense of honor and a character to lose, will be at least as bad in public life as they are in private."

To come down to concrete illustrations. The term of certain State officers is fixed by law. The Constitution says that, when there is a vacancy in certain offices, it shall be filled by the Governor's nominating and the Senate's confirming a candidate for the place. The Governor has nominated persons to fill such vacancies in this State, but the Senate has steadily refused to confirm any of his nominations, in order that the actual incumbent might hold over indefinitely. Under this revolutionary proceeding, "Tom" Platt held over as Quarantine Commissioner five years, and the present Health Officer, Dr. William M. Smith, was appointed for a term of two years, in 1880, and has held over until now, and is actually in office because the Senate refused to do its constitutional duty by confirming the Governor's nominations.

The Constitution provides that in 1866, and every twenty years thereafter, the question, "Shall there be a convention to revise the Constitution and amend the same?" shall be submitted to the people; and that, if the vote be favorable to a convention, "the Legislature at its next session shall provide by law for the election of delegates." The question was submitted in 1886; was answered in the affirmative. In 1887 the Legislature passed an act providing for a Convention, but the Governor vetoed it, on the ground that the act was not, in his opinion, the kind of act the people wanted. Consequently, the direction of the Constitution remains unexecuted and the demand of the people unsatisfied.

The Constitution provides "that an enumeration of the inhabitants of the State shall be taken in 1855, and at the end of every ten years thereafter." The Legislature passed an act for this purpose in 1885, which was copied literally, except as to dates, from previous census bills which former Democratic Governors had signed. Gov. Hill vetoed it, because it was not the kind of bill he liked, and called an extra session of the Legislature to pass a bill of his own; but the Legislature refused to pass it, because it was not the kind of bill they liked. Consequently, the census which ought to have been made four years ago has not been made yet.

Has any one been punished for this neglect of duty? No one. No member of the Legislature who was successful in getting a party nomination has been defeated or discredited for helping officials to hold over, and Gov. Hill has been reëlected in spite of his vetoes. In fact, nobody has been in any manner called to account for disregarding the Constitution and following his own whims.

What, then, is to be done about it, we do not know. We know that the public is too busy to be much interested in the matter, and has gradually lost the habit of agitation. The old "indignation meeting," which used to play so prominent and useful a part in American politics, is now hardly ever held. The old lecturer who used to keep people stirred up about current questions is dead, or old, or silent. The pamphleteer never gets outside colleges and learned societies. The business of looking after Legislatures and Governors has been wholly absorbed by the daily press, and the daily press not only shrinks more and more from the discussion of serious topics, but stands by its party, right or wrong. We have no solution to offer. We are simply describing the situation. But this we do know, that the tendency to regard the distribution of spoils as the chief business of men high in office, and everything else subordinate, subsidiary, and comparatively insignificant, grows apace, and that whenever a remedy begins to be sought for, it will probably be found in that direction.

MICHEL EUGÈNE CHEVREUL.

The death of Chevreul, at the age of nearly one hundred and three years, is the first instance of a man so well known in the intellectual field attaining so great an age. Notwith-

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standing the frequency of reports of deaths at much greater ages than this, it may be questioned whether we have well-authenticated evidence that any man has ever lived much longer than Chevreul. In very few of the reported cases of much greater longevity is the fact well enough established to convince the sceptic; and the stories of Jenkins and Parr are now, by consent of those best able to judge, regarded as entirely wanting in proof. In comparing Chevreul with other well-known centenarians, we recall Fontenelle, who died one month before completing his century, Montefiore, and Holyoke, who did not add one year to the others, and Canon Beadon, who fell six months short of completing his one hundred and second year. The years of Chevreul's working activity are even more phenomenal than those of his life. His first published investigation dates from 1806; his last contribution to the Academy of Sciences was made on May 22, 1888. Eighty-two years of work after reaching maturity is something for which no precedent probably exists. The honor of foreign membership of the Royal Society of London generally comes to a scientific investigator only after the meridian of life, as the reward of long and distinguished labors. Yet Chevreul has enjoyed it since John Quincy Adams was President of the United States. His work on the harmony of colors will be remembered by old men as a book familiar to them in youth, whose author they have long regarded as belonging to a former generation. We do not know that he exhibited any marked precocity; yet the publication of an important work at the age of twenty, and the attainment of foreign membership of the Royal Society at the age of forty, show that neither slow development nor leisurely habits could have been characteristic of his earlier years.

The case of Chevreul strengthens the general conclusion drawn from other instances of the kind, that great longevity is not associated with anything unusual in constitution or habits of life, unless it be good health. The writer of this notice first made the French chemist's acquaintance in 1871, when he was in his eighty-fifth year. Though what we call "well preserved," he showed no marks of an unusually vigorous constitution. His stature was slightly above the average, and his temperament, if it deviated at all from neutrality, was what Cullen and his predecessors would have called the sanguineous, tending to the development of fat rather than of bone or muscle. It needed only a glance to show that he had not recently been a hard walker or a hard rider. At that time Canon Beadon could still hunt, though nine years older than Chevreul. Yet the latter was not physically inactive. He almost never missed a meeting of the Academy of Sciences up to the age of a hundred, unless of late years, when kept at home by bad weather. Considering his nationality, his most noteworthy characteristic was total abstention from wine—not on the score of health or temperance, but simply because he never liked it.

The most interesting question suggested by such a life is not how long a man can live, but how long he can retain his faculties sufficiently to make life worth living. We have already cited evidence that Chevreul followed the discussions in the Academy with keen interest past his hundredth year. So far as we know, his sight and hearing remained unimpaired to the last. A medical examination at the age of ninety-six showed him to be still free from any disorder. Naturally his mind lost its flexibility in his later years, and the reader may draw his own conclusions from an incident occurring when he was eighty-four. About the beginning of 1871, he published a solemn statement of the bombardment of the Jardin des Plantes by the forces of King William and Chancellor Bismarck, and three months later the writer found him still in a state of intense indignation at the act. Being pressed for the reason why a Power which undoubtedly appreciated scientific institutions should be guilty of such vandalism, he naïvely replied that the authorities had used the Jardin as a safe place to store some explosives they did not want exposed to shells, and he supposed the Prussians had found it out. In his declining years his mind did not revert to its earliest work, as one might suppose, but to that of his middle age. The contrast of colors seemed to be the principal subject of his lucubrations, and it was treated in a way that showed a loss of mental grasp. Possibly the same thing might be said of certain philosophic views upon the progress of the sciences and kindred subjects, did we not know that an apparent lack of clear thinking in such a case may arise from a failure on the part of the reader to apprehend exactly the meaning of the writer. But whatever the decay to which his productive and thinking powers may have been subject, it did not detract either from his own enjoyment of life or from the interest which all who knew him felt in the society of so genial a man.

His scientific work is so familiar to all interested in it that little need be said of it. His field might be called industrial and animal chemistry, and it was by his work as a pioneer in this field that he won his great reputation. His researches in animal fats formed the basis of what has since become one of the great industries of our time. Called to the superintendence of the great manufactory of tapestry of the Gobelins, he applied himself to the thorough study of the art of dyeing and of the theory of the harmony and contrast of colors. He devised the "chromatic scale" in which the colors of the spectrum are arranged in a circle, the violet of the upper end of the spectrum merging into the red of the lower end. His prominent characteristics seem to have been the industry and sagacity with which he set about the investigation of whatever fell in his way, and his thoroughness in going to the bottom of it, rather than in the creative genius of a master mind.

CANOVA.

BASSANO, September 18, 1888.

FOR a place only three hours from Venice by railway, and only eleven from Trent by diligence or carriage through the picturesque Canale di Brenta and the Val Sugana, Bassano seems much neglected by the summer traveller. Yet there is an excellent inn of the old quiet kind, clean and well kept, with the rusty coats-of-arms marking the passage of the Grand Duke of Tuscany, the Duke of Parma, the Count of Chambord, and the Prince of Hohenzollern. The squares and streets are full of curious antique houses, covered in parts with remnants of ancient frescoes. The art of etching and engraving once thrived there, and good examples of master works are still to be picked up. In the sacristy of St. John the Baptist there may be seen a very beautiful and equally interesting high-relief in terracotta, ascribed to Luca della Robbia, but as different from any of the works of that school as it is from the colored terracotta groups of Begarelli and others at Modena. It represents the baptism of Christ, with four life-sized figures and five small angels in attendance. The modelling and expression are admirable, and the figures, colored in subdued tones, stand out from a painted background representing such a landscape as may be seen all about Bassano. The Museum has an excellent series of pictures of the Da Ponte family and others; engravings, autographs, casts and models of the works of Canova, and a large collection of his letters, besides the remarkable herbaria of Montini, Brocchi, and Parolini. The splendid garden of Parolini, with its magnificent cedars of Lebanon and groups of pines from Mount Ida, named, after him, *Pinus Parolinii*, is still kept in excellent order by his descendants.

After all, the great charm of Bassano is its situation. George Sand, writing in the spring of 1834, said:

"I recommend to you the Café della Fosse as one of the best fortunes that can fall to the lot of the traveller tired of the classic masterpieces of Italy. . . . The country was not yet in all its splendor, the meadows being of a languishing green tending towards yellow, and the leaves had only begun to bud on the trees. But the almond and peach trees in bloom were mingling here and there their pink and white garlands with the sombre masses of the cypresses. In the midst of this immense garden the Brenta ran rapidly and silently over its sandy bed between those two wide banks that it tears from the bosom of the Alps, and with which it strews the plain in its days of wrath. A semicircle of fertile hills, covered with those long branches of knotty vine which hang from all the trees of Venetia, made a first frame to the picture, and the snowy mountains sparkling in the first rays of the sun formed a second border further on, which stood out like a silver silhouette against the solid blue of the air."

The café, which occupies the site of an old loggia in the walls, built for the sake of the view in 1504, still exists, but the mouldering red-brown walls and turrets, covered with creepers reaching to the moat below, have on one side been torn down to make room for an unfinished, treeless promenade, and the lover of landscape would do better to see the same view—although somewhat more restricted—from the balcony of the Canonica.

From Bassano one may make a pleasant day's excursion by driving along the hills to Possagno, the birthplace of Canova, then down a wooded valley to Asolo, which is still proud of its memories of Catherine Cornaro, Queen of Cyprus, and of Bembo, and perhaps go further on to Maser, the celebrated villa of the Barbaro family, built by Palladio and decorated by Paul Veronese. The landscape is such as one sees in so many old Venetian pictures—blue, rounded, bossy hills, sometimes covered with green meadow, and sometimes wooded, with abundance of pools and sparkling streams, and in the distance the high, bare, ragged, and often snow-covered mountains. When you have gone scarcely three miles from Bassano, you come to the splendid Villa Corner, now Mocenigo, which, in its many vicissitudes, has seen this landscape in much less peaceful times, for here in 1796 were the headquarters of Prince Hohenzollern, and four regiments of Neapolitan cavalry were encamped in the neighboring meadows. These were occupied again in 1866 by the division of General Medici. A little further on is a group of round hills with hamlets scattered among them, described by Dante, though not mentioned by name:

> "Within that region of the land depraved
> Of Italy, that lies between Rialto
> And fountain-heads of Brenta and Piava,
> Rises a hill and mounts not very high,
> Wherefrom descended formerly a torch
> That made upon that region great assault."

This is Romano, the birthplace of the tyrant Ezzolino, to whose cruelty and prowess the monuments of Bassano, Padua, and other towns still bear witness. At Crespano, a little further on, there is to be found one of those good li-

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braries which are not uncommon in small Italian towns. The Latinist Pietro Canal, a professor at Padua, was a native of Crespano, and left to his birthplace his fine collection of books and manuscripts. To store these his brother has erected a suitable building open to the public. The amiable abbé who is the librarian, showed me with pride the whole library: a large number of early and later very rare printed books; a rich collection of Greek and Latin classics; a large library of Italian literature which originally belonged to Luigi Carrer, and had been continued by Canal, including an excellent Dante collection; and one of the richest existing collections of what is the specialty of Italian libraries, the *Testa della lingua*, or books cited by the Academia della Crusca as specimens of pure Italian. Here there are only about twenty works lacking; but there are duplicates of some of the rarer books and even earlier editions than those cited by the Academy. The very large musical library is in some respects richer in manuscripts than those of Venice. Naturally there is a large hall devoted to engravings of the works of Canova, copies of some of his statues, and objects which belonged to him, including table services given him by Napoleon, the Countess of Albany, and others; for Crespano was the birthplace of Canova's mother, and she went back there to live after her second marriage.

The small village of Possagno, straggling along the gentle slope of the hills, is dominated by the immense rotunda of the church, or *tempio*, to the construction of which Canova devoted the later years of his life and much of his fortune. It was not finished until eight years after his death, and he had been unable to execute the sculptures with which he intended to decorate it. His half-brother, the Bishop Sartori-Canova, thinking that sufficient had already been spent on the building, put, in place of the projected statues, gigantic frescoes of the Apostles which are horrible and grotesque. Otherwise there are several good pictures, and one which is interesting as being the work of Canova himself — representing the body of Christ after being taken from the cross—of which it may be said that it is not so bad as might have been expected. It was one of Canova's weaknesses to imagine that he was as clever with his brush as with his chisel. On the left of the church, opposite the group of the Pietà, is the simple but elegant monument (designed by Canova himself for another man) that contains the bodies of Canova and his brother, placed there in 1830 when the church was finished. The tombs at Rome and Venice are merely cenotaphs. On his first resting-place in the old church was the simple inscription, "Hic Canova"; but on this the Bishop put: "John B. Episcopus Myndensis Ant. Canovæ Fratri dulcissimo et sibi vivens p. c." Coming out into the Doric portico, one looks southward over the splendid prospect to the hills of Asolo. At times one seems to see the shimmer of the Venetian lagoons, which are perfectly visible from the hills behind and from the top of the church. In front, at the end of the straight hot road, is Canova's birthplace; and next to it stands the museum founded by the family, which contains plaster casts of nearly all his works, and very many of the original models used by the workmen and Canova himself for cutting the marble statues. Some of these still bear the pencil dots and black-headed tacks for the guidance of the workmen—a process which, it is claimed, was invented by Canova himself.

The effect produced—on me at least—by seeing in one building these 194 different pieces of sculpture, added to what I had already seen at Venice and elsewhere, was distinctly to raise and enhance my opinion of Canova's genius and talent. The Thorwaldsen Museum at Copenhagen did not give me a similar feeling. George Sand seemed to think that he had taken all his models from the lovely youth of Possagno; but on the morning when she wrote she had seen some one who particularly pleased her. Hawthorne lays some stress on a rash statement of Hiram Powers that Canova modelled every face after his own; but an artistic judgment of Powers is of course hardly worth mentioning, especially when transmitted by Hawthorne. Neither of these statements is true. In looking, not so much at the statues of Canova as at his drawings and studies—of which over 1,700 are preserved in the museum at Bassano—it is noticeable that his great delight was in the nude figure, and that the head is sometimes omitted and generally drawn in only feebly and conventionally, with slight attempt at indicating expression. So far as is known, Canova never drew or modelled from more than a single nude figure at Possagno—and that with the greatest difficulty, and with much severe criticism from the rustic population.

The most hasty observer cannot but be struck with the constant evidences of Canova's application and perseverance. He devoted his whole lifetime to the study of art, and not merely to perfecting himself in his own art, though all his studies helped to that end. Neither his eyes nor his hands were ever idle. When a boy in Venice, when a youth in Rome, when travelling abroad in later life, he not only made careful studies of bas-reliefs and statues, but in his pocket note-book was constantly sketching the people whom he met, noting any little peculiarity of movement or grace of attitude, as well as bits of architecture which were in any way suggestive to his mind. For some of his larger monuments there are many sketches of different grouping and on different scales. Canova was not a sculptor simply because he had the knack of modelling in clay, like so many nowadays. Quatremère de Quincy urged him one day to take a greater number of workmen and students, and to content himself with modelling, leaving his work to be put into bronze or marble by other hands; telling him that he could thus make much more money. Canova replied that he wished to be a sculptor and not a manufacturer of statues, and that he preferred to leave fewer works provided they were better. When in Rome he rarely went to bed without visiting his studio with a small lamp, which he placed in various positions near the statue he would then be at work at; without carefully observing the outlines and contours by this illumination (so different from that of day) and giving a little touch of the file wherever it seemed necessary. Even the disease which caused his death was originally produced by too hard and prolonged work on the monuments of Clements XIII. and XIV. in St. Peter's. His pressing the borer against his chest for so many hours at a time brought about cancerous affection of the liver.

It was well that Canova should follow the excellent customs of study and work practised by the great artists of the Renaissance, for never since that age has a sculptor had the same opportunity for the world to admire, or at least to purchase, his productions. Living at a time when the world cared for the arts as well as for display, a period traversed by the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Empire, he had unusual facilities for making the personal acquaintance of the rulers of the world. A protégé of the Popes, he was favored and admired by Napoleon, and yet his position was none the worse on the return of Pius VII. to Rome. Besides this, the charm of his character and manner was such, his innate goodness was so plainly visible, that he made friends—and good, prudent, and powerful ones—wherever he went.

When quite young, Canova had been intimate in Rome with the engraver Volpato (almost a countryman, for he had been born at Bassano), and had been persuaded to become engaged to one of his daughters; she, however, jilted him for a young Pole, and subsequently married the engraver Raphael Morghen. After that, Canova had no more time for love or marriage, and his simple life was for many years regulated by his nurse and housekeeper, Luigia Giuli, an interesting bust of whom, by Canova's comrade and lifelong friend, Antonio d'Este, is to be seen in the museum at Ravenna. Canova's affections were henceforth given to his friends, and his leisure to serving the interests of art, whether as Director of the Vatican Museum, President of the Academy of St. Luke, commissioner to restore to Italy the works of art carried away by the French, or simply by his efforts, his purse, and his influence in favor of young artists who were in any way unfortunate. Not a shadow of jealousy or envy ever seems to have crossed his heart; and among particular acts may be mentioned what he did to relieve and to release the young Spanish artists imprisoned by General Miollis in the Castle of St. Angelo, among whom was Madrazo (the father), and to prevent the expulsion from Rome of the German artists, including Rauch, and Thorwaldsen, who was classed with them.

The episode in Canova's life which is probably the most interesting to the general public is his share in restoring to Italy the works of art carried off by Napoleon. For this he was naturally marked out. Yet it was not with pleasure that he received the orders of Cardinal Consalvi, for he had to leave Rome, to quit his simple life, and be subjected—as he anticipated, and as proved to be the case—to a thousand annoyances. After the first Treaty of Paris in 1814, the Allies had respected the Louvre and the French provincial museums, and had asked only for those works of art belonging to their respective countries which were simply kept in the storehouses. After the Hundred Days and the necessity of renewed military exertions, they insisted on punishing France, not only by military contributions, but by depriving her of the spoil of the war. The most bitter were England and Prussia; and some French writers are absurd enough to suppose that the inspiring cause of the English effort to restore the works of art came from dislike to having their own museums rivalled and surpassed, and the hope of buying up the pictures and statues at a cheap rate when France had been deprived of them. One proof of this, in French eyes, was that the Parthenon had been despoiled to procure the Elgin marbles which went to the British Museum. The Emperor Alexander sympathized with the French, for no objects of art had come from Russia, and he found it beautiful and convenient that all the artistic treasures of the world should be collected in one great museum. Unquestionably the Louvre must have been splendid in those days; but unfortunately it was so magnificent that no traveller or diarist of the time has given us an adequate description of it, and we are left to the study of catalogues and monographs to form for ourselves the idea of what it must have been. It is easy to appreciate the feelings of those who regretted the breaking up of such a magnificent collection;

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but lovers of art felt then, as now, that it was unfair to the various countries of Europe that they should be deprived of art treasures which had been their pride for centuries. They felt, also, that it was unsafe to collect all the treasures of the world under a single roof; and for these fears the dangers to which the Louvre has been since exposed are a sufficient justification.

The French offered a passive resistance—if they had dared, they would have offered active opposition—to what they called the "spoliation of France." Louis XVIII. was indignant but powerless. Denon, the Director of the Louvre, who had been the chief agent of Napoleon in collecting the museum, resisted sufficiently to compel a show of force. Had it not been for what the French call the "brutality" of the Prussian soldiers, who offered to break down the doors, and for the smoother but equally persistent efforts of Sir William Hamilton, the French would perhaps have kept the gallery. Canova was the agent only of the Papal Government, but he was also commissioned to pursue the claims of the Albani, Braschi, and other families whose collections had been pillaged; and he gave his influence in aid of the agents of the other Italian States. He was met at the outset by the French claim that most of these works of art had been freely ceded by the Pope in the Treaty of Tolentino; but he fortunately found that this treaty had been denounced by the French themselves. Although he felt obliged to yield to King Louis XVIII. most of the pictures and sculptures which were kept in his private apartments, and although many things could not be found, having strayed into private hands, he was able to restore to Italy the greater part of what had been taken from her. Owing to his want of funds, the English Government on two occasions advanced the sum of 100,000 francs each, to pay the expenses of packing and transport. Only one of the great Italian pictures still remains in the Louvre—the "Marriage at Cana," by Paul Veronese—as it was thought it would have to be cut to pieces and irremediably injured in the transport to Venice.

One can appreciate still more the feelings of Denon and his subordinates at the Louvre when it came to the turn of the provincial museums to disgorge. In order to fill the gaps in the galleries at Paris, it was necessary to recall some of the presents made at various times from the overflowing collections. The provincial museums not only objected to this, but protested and complained. Their pictures had sometimes to be taken almost by force, and they demanded compensation.

Canova had at one time a commission to make a colossal statue of Napoleon, which is a really splendid work of art. But the original had never been publicly set up in Paris, as, on account of its nudity, the Emperor feared the jests that would be levelled against him. In the distribution of spoils this was given to the Duke of Wellington, and still exists in the possession of his descendants. The replica of it in bronze stands in the court of the Brera gallery at Milan, and a cast of it in the Palazzo Bonaparte at Rome. The reception at Venice of the objects taken thence is told in the recently published letters of Cicognara. Canova had proposed that the bronze horses, brought originally from Constantinople, should be placed on each side of the ducal palace, looking towards San Giorgio, but it was decided to restore them to their former position above the porch of San Marco. It was a great festa, with music, cannon, and bells, when, in the presence of the Austrian Emperor and his court, the horses were once more hoisted into their place. The mechanical arrangement was so perfect that the operation lasted but a very short time, after the fleet of gondolas had towed to the landing-place the raft containing the group, which had been temporarily deposited at San Giorgio.

The part played by Canova in all this business was for a long time not forgotten in France. When, after Canova's death, Cicognara undertook to get up an international subscription for his monument, the banking-house of Delessert refused to accept subscriptions; and even Louis Philippe—then Duc d'Orléans—wrote that he would have been most happy to subscribe, "but it is notorious that in 1815 Canova quitted his chisel in order to come to Paris to take charge in the devastation of that museum the loss of which France deplores, and the dispersion of which friends of the fine arts in all countries must regret. This sad page of his history prevents any Frenchman from adding his name to the list of those who are erecting this monument."

It may not be generally remembered that, at a time when the different countries of Europe were in rivalry for possession of works by Canova, one of his statues was brought to the United States. It was a seated statue of Washington ordered by the State of North Carolina. Canova interested himself greatly in the work; as a republican born he admired the character of Washington, and he endeavored to increase and enlighten these feelings by reading what lives of Washington were available, and the whole of Botta's history of the American Revolution. The model was executed in 1818. The statue was finished soon afterwards, and was unveiled with some pomp and ceremonial in the State-house at Raleigh. Unfortunately, it perished in the fire which destroyed that building in 1831. The statue represented Washington seated in the armor of a Roman general, with his helmet and sword on the ground by his side, engaged in writing on a tablet what was apparently his Farewell Address, or the resignation of his commission. The likeness was, of course, made up from copies of portraits, and the statue cannot be called one of Canova's most successful works; but it is on the whole more interesting than that of Houdon and than several made since. Various engravings of it are to be found in the different editions of Canova's complete works, and the original model of it—with nail-heads, pencil marks, and all—still exists in the museum at Possagno. The correspondence on the subject is in the library at Bassano, but there has been no time to examine it.

Nothing will be easier, in one sense, than to obtain a replica of this statue of Washington almost as perfect as that finished by Canova's own hands; and it will be well worth reproducing, even if only as an historical souvenir—either by the order of the State of North Carolina, or by some wealthy Northerner in gratitude for the restoration of his health by the charming climate of Asheville. It has been ascertained on inquiry that the statue could be reproduced by any of the best sculptors of Venice, and set up at Raleigh for a sum which would not exceed six or seven thousand dollars. It would be necessary, however, to intrust the work to an Italian—and better, a Venetian—sculptor: partly because there might be difficulties in obtaining permission to use the model, and partly because it might be necessary to do the work at Possagno itself. Besides this, it is to be feared that some of the so-called American sculptors in Italy would charge three or four times as much, to have the work done by Italians without touching it with one finger themselves, and then pocket the difference of price. E. S.

Correspondence.

NEGRO CONVICTS IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an editorial of the 4th inst., entitled "Negro Convicts in South Carolina," you bring one of the severest indictments against that unfortunate State that I remember ever to have read. Had this article appeared in one of those strongly partisan newspapers utterly blinded by sectional prejudice, it would have received very little attention. But the *Nation* has been so uniformly just towards the South, and preserves so judicial a tone on all subjects, that the charge which you make in the editorial referred to is doubly damaging. If facts are as you describe them, then indeed ours is "a state of things hardly credible in a civilized community." But you are well aware that South Carolina *is* a civilized community, and such knowledge ought to have put you on your guard against the mistakes into which you have fallen. As I feel sure that you meant no injustice, and that you desire to get at the truth, permit me to call your attention to the facts in the case.

"It is sufficiently startling," you remark, "to be told that of the 894 convicts in the South Carolina penitentiary 843 are colored, and it savors a bit of slavery to find that of the 70 negroes who were subjects of executive clemency during the year, 25 were serving life sentences and 13 others terms of imprisonment of ten or more years."

It should not be a startling fact that, in every community, the great majority of criminals come from the ranks of the poor and ignorant and thriftless. This is as true of New York as it is of South Carolina. Let it never be forgotten that for eleven years (1865-1876) the negroes of South Carolina had a thorough education in crime. During that period bad white men—the great majority of them emissaries from the North—encouraged the negroes in every form of incendiarism and theft. They were taught that it was not wrong to steal from their former masters—that it was, in reality, not stealing, but taking what properly belonged to them. For the ignorance and the low moral tone of the negro, doubtless slavery is largely responsible; and we of the South are willing to bear our share of responsibility for this state of things; but it is certain that the complete demoralization of the negro during the carpet-bag reign was due to the pernicious teaching of these adventurers from the North.

You can now understand why it was absolutely necessary for the Democrats, immediately on coming into power, to pass severe laws against burglary and arson. These were the crimes that were ruining the State. They struck at the very foundation of the social fabric. Industry was paralyzed when its fruits might at any time be consumed by the flames or be borne away by the burglar. It was necessary, too, that these laws should be enforced not only against adults, but against youths of both sexes, sent out on the mission of destruction just because it was presumed that the punishment inflicted on them would be slight.

This discipline, severe but indispensable, had its desired effect. After 1876 crime gradually diminished in the State. By 1883 there was such a moral improvement in the negro race that in that year the law was considerably relaxed, and the punishments were made much

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lighter. It is to this relaxation that you refer when you say:

"The method by which the administration of the law is kept impartial to all, white and black alike, is ingenious. The statute punishing burglary, for instance, prescribes punishment for life as a penalty, but with an important proviso that if the jury recommend the prisoner to mercy, the punishment shall be reduced to imprisonment for not less than five years. This allows juries to recommend white offenders to mercy, while the negroes suffer the full penalty of the law."

On the contrary, I am assured by the present Governor of the State that the statute was passed for the special benefit of the negroes. The seven years (1876-1883) of discipline under the severer laws had so reduced the crimes of burglary and arson, that it was felt that there might safely be a relaxation of the law and a mitigation of the punishment. The statute which you suggest as made to shield white offenders, must, like most other statutes, be studied historically to be understood; and when so studied, it will be found to bear no such interpretation as you put upon it.

Another general remark needs to be made. You mention cases of persons sentenced to long terms of imprisonment when the articles stolen by the burglar were few and of small worth. But this is not a fair presentation of the case. If a burglar breaks into a house with the view of stealing valuable property, and perhaps of committing murder, if necessary to his purpose—if such a burglar escapes with not a dollar's worth of property, he is just as guilty as if he had taken all he intended to take. In a state of things in which the laws must be severe and rigidly enforced, it will no doubt sometimes happen that the punishment will be too severe; but in all the cases mentioned, I venture to say it will be found that it was the character of the crime, not the amount of property stolen, that determined the nature and amount of the punishment inflicted.

I cannot take up all the cases you have adduced; you would hardly allow me the space for this. It will be better to give such a full statement of two or three of them as will show their real character.

The case of Prince Williams is an interesting one. Your statement of it is as follows:

"Prince Williams, while a slave, had a wife, although no slave marriage was recognized by the law, and this wife seems to have disappeared, *perhaps sold into slavery*. At any rate, Prince married again in 1878, and, after living with his wife for ten years, was prosecuted for bigamy, slave marriages having been validated by the Legislature. Immediately on his conviction the prosecuting attorney had the grace to recommend his pardon, stating that the main object of the prosecution was to vindicate the law on account of the salutary effect upon the people of that race."

The expression, "perhaps sold into slavery," which I have italicised, insignificant as it may appear, really gives a false turn to the whole statement. It implies that a negro whose wife had been sold into slavery before or during the war, and who, after waiting in vain for many years for the reappearance of his wife, marries again, is prosecuted and convicted as a criminal; and this, too, although his former marriage was not a legal marriage. If the laws of South Carolina permitted a prosecution and conviction under such circumstances, they would indeed betray "a state of things hardly credible in a civilized community." Here is the statement of the case made by an attorney acquainted with all the facts, in response to the Governor's request for information:

"Prince Williams, an old colored man, was convicted at the February term of our court of bigamy. It appeared from the evidence that Prince married Louisa during slavery and lived with her up to 1873, when Prince was told that his slave marriage was not legal, whereupon he asked his wife, Louisa, to marry him according to law, and validate what he supposed to be an illegal marriage. Louisa refused, and said that she did not wish to bind herself to Prince. A separation took place, and Prince took another wife in 1878. Wife number one lived within a few hundred yards of Prince and wife number two for the past ten years, and not until recently thought of charging him with bigamy; and I am satisfied that the prosecution was brought to revenge herself of an injury in another matter before the Trial Justice Court. Everybody who heard the case thought Prince should be discharged, the evidence showing that he had acted in ignorance of the law, and had done everything in his power to live with wife number one before he left and took wife number two. The judge, solicitor, and jurors join me in asking a pardon for Prince, and I trust the same may be granted by your Excellency. Judge Aldrich directed the sheriff not to send Prince to the penitentiary until you could be heard from. Your early attention will be very acceptable to Prince and your friend, M. P. Howell."

I may add that the law validating slave marriages was passed in 1872, and that it applied only to cases in which the parties were living together at that date. A certain class of parsons, to get a marriage fee, persuaded the more ignorant negroes that their marriages were illegal, and hence Prince's trouble and Louisa's rebellion.

Here is the Solicitor's account of the case of Dick Ellerbe, endorsed on the petition for executive clemency:

"This party belonged to the 'Spring Hill Gang of Robbers' who infested that country several years ago. One was killed while resisting arrest and after having killed one of the posse. Some escaped. Jake Jennings and Dick Ellerbe were caught. Dick Ellerbe pleaded guilty, and at that time the judge had no discretion, but had to sentence him for life. Jake Jennings was convicted, and, I think, sentenced to five years in the penitentiary. It may be well enough to commute Dick's sentence to an equality with that of Jake, but I know of no mitigating circumstances. Jake's sentence was reduced to five years because of the recommendation to mercy by the jury, etc."

You will observe the operation in this case of the statute referred to above. Jake Jennings, the negro, does not "suffer the full penalty of the law," but is recommended to mercy, and Dick Ellerbe, though confessing his crime, also obtains mercy. It is, no doubt, a touching fact that this negro has eight helpless children, whose mother and grandmother have died while the father was in prison. But what has this to do with the justice of his punishment? Will any one say that a man who belongs to a "gang of robbers that have infested a community for several years," and who kill one of a posse sent to arrest them, should go unpunished because he has a houseful of helpless children?

The next case on the docket is that of Eli Moore. You say:

"He was sentenced to ten years' imprisonment for manslaughter. Eight of the jurors who tried the case ask for his pardon on the ground 'that there is reason to believe that Moore did not do the shooting, and that it was done by a white man who left the State immediately after the shooting and did not return until after the trial.' It apparently did not seem worth while to trouble this white man by ascertaining the truth of the matter, which was adjusted by a commutation of Moore's sentence from ten years to five."

The reader would naturally infer from the above statement that Eli Moore would not be guilty at all should it be proved that the white man did the shooting. But even were this proved, Eli Moore would still be guilty and deserve the punishment he is receiving. He and others, including, probably, this white man, constituted a gang that murdered a colored man named Mitchell Godbold. Which one of the party actually fired the shot that killed Godbold, will probably never be known. Only two of the party were caught—Haines Graham and Eli Moore. The evidence at the time of the trial was that Moore did the shooting, and so his punishment was made greater than that of Graham. Will any one deny that these men should have been punished? Will any one affirm their punishment was too great? And does the petition, signed by white men, that Moore's punishment should be mitigated, since there is a probability that he did not do the actual shooting, look as if "the State is quite willing to dispense with the formality of the actual commission of a crime by a negro in order to secure his services as a convict"? But why was the suspected *white man* never arrested? I have not the information requisite to answer this question; but it is no uncommon thing for a man to be strongly suspected of a crime, and yet for the evidence to be too slight to warrant his arrest. At any rate, you may be sure that a white man that joins a band of negroes to commit murder, will hardly be regarded with any special affection by the whites.

I close with the case of Capers Allen; and I select it, partly because it is the saddest and most damaging of all, and partly because, though bad in itself, it is unintentionally made to appear much worse than it really is, by the mode of stating it. Your statement is:

"In 1887, Capers Allen, also colored, was accused of murder. His employer at once came forward and testified that the prisoner, who was quite young, was four miles away when the murder was committed. Subsequently, the boy was rearrested without his employer's knowledge, tried, and sentenced to be hanged, the sentence being commuted by Gov. Hampton to imprisonment for life. The employer has made repeated efforts to secure his release, but not until eleven years have gone by is he finally successful."

Your statement is a fair presentation of the case as it is recorded in the Governor's Statement; but that statement, from its very brevity, has to omit much matter that is necessary to the understanding of the case. Gen. Bonham, Capers Allen's attorney, assures me that the facts are these: When Clayton Allen was killed, several negroes were arrested on suspicion, among them Capers Allen, then in the employ of P. B. Allen. P. B. Allen at once informed the party that held these negroes in arrest that Capers Allen was with him, four miles away, late in the evening of the night that Clayton Allen was killed; and that he felt quite sure Capers could not have been among the murderers. Whereupon Capers was released. Some time afterwards, the evidence against Capers being very strong, he was rearrested, tried, and convicted. P. B. Allen, his former employer, living, at the time of Capers's arrest, in a different county, knew nothing for a long time of Capers's conviction. As soon as he heard of it he took steps to secure his release, and was successful, Gen. Bonham being the attorney. Why it was that the testimony of P. B. Allen to an *alibi* that was adduced when Capers was first arrested, and which led to his release at that time, was not brought forward when he was tried and convicted, is not known. Capers's attorney (a lawyer, appointed by the judge at the time of the trial) knew nothing of such testimony. Here was the great and fatal mistake that consigned an innocent man to imprisonment for eleven years. But as soon as the mistake was detected it was corrected.

The petition makes a different impression. It declares that P. B. Allen had *all along* testified to Capers's absence from the scene of the murder; and the impression is made that Capers was kept in confinement for eleven

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years, during all which time P. B. Allen was urging his release, and testifying to an *alibi* in his favor. Gen. Bonham assures me that this was not the case; that as soon as P. B. Allen's testimony was produced it was acted on, and Capers was pardoned.

It is necessary to say a word about these petitions in general, and about the Governor's Statement. The petitions always present the most favorable side of the case. They assume as known all the unfavorable features, and urge only those matters favorable to the prisoner; and they are so apt to strain facts in the prisoner's favor that the Governor feels obliged to write to men of high character in possession of the facts, in order to be well informed before acting on the petition. But the Governor cannot embody all these facts in his Statement. The purpose of the Statement is to inform the public as to whom he has pardoned, and, in the briefest possible way, of the ground of his action. He naturally mentions only the mitigating circumstances. The impression, therefore, is apt to be made that these persons were unjustly punished in the first instance. But if one will only take the trouble to investigate, he will find that there is quite another side to the picture than that presented in petitions. The papers containing the facts in the cases of all who have applied for pardon or commutation are carefully preserved by the Governor, and he will take pleasure in supplying such papers to all responsible persons who seriously desire to inquire into the facts.

The administration of justice in South Carolina is not perfect. But we claim that our laws are impartial and our judges incorruptible. As long as human nature is weak, and juries are made of men many of whom are ignorant and prejudiced, and some corruptible (and this is true of juries everywhere in this country), the innocent will sometimes be punished, and the guilty will sometimes go unpunished. The good people of South Carolina deplore the evils that exist among them far more deeply than it is possible for any one at a distance to do. But we have not yet reached that condition of things described in your article. With all our faults, we are still a civilized community.

W. J. Alexander.

University of South Carolina, April 12, 1889.

EAST AND WEST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It would be bad enough to be advertised as applying the term "effete East" to our busy and exaggeratedly living Eastern centres of thought and commerce, if one had really committed such a solecism; but imagine yourself to have given an address, Mr. Editor, where the very opposite idea was advanced, and where the Eastern States were pictured as the source and inspiration of all Western thought and advancement, and then try and realize your feelings when you saw yourself described to the world as speaking of the "effete East." Surely an author so unfortunate deserves at least the privilege and opportunity of explanation; and though the matter is a very small one to the great East maligned as "effete," the Westerner involved in the case feels very much in the mood for reprisals, at least to the extent of an explanation.

The address in question was upon "The Relations of the East and the West"; and in speaking of the possibilities of future development in our great country, the author alluded to the difference between inland and coast civilizations. The fact was adverted to that coast civilizations—or periods of flower in culture—are usually most brilliant, but short-lived, like the era of Athenian splendor or the Italian Renaissance. Inland civilizations, on the contrary, are of slower growth and longer duration, but are in danger of fossilizing, as did Egypt, for instance. The author then drew attention to the great inland region comprising our so-called Western States, and spoke of the possibility open to them of developing a unique civilization individual in type. The fact was emphasized that the Eastern or coast States had been the original guides and inspirers of the West, and that they would always remain the high seats of a culture peculiarly their own, as their location upon the coast made them sensitive to the thought pulsations of the world. This position would enable them to transmit to the inland region of the West constantly fresh incentives and impulses, which, having done their destined work of rousing, would return to their originators with a new and characteristic flavor.

The idea was, that this constant repulsation would enable the East and the West to maintain each its own type of culture and keep both from stagnating; but the fact was insisted upon that, in order to develop and maintain an individual culture, the West must have her own libraries and universities, and only send her young men and women East after their powers have been ripened and matured in purely Western fashion. It was the elaboration of this last conclusion which probably left upon the mind of the weary listener the idea that the author considered the East "effete," and the mistake is only worth correcting because it voices a feeling in regard to Eastern culture too prevalent in the far West, and which Eastern people are too ready to attribute to the West as a whole.

Mary H. Ford.

Kansas City, Mo., April 10, 1889.

AMERICAN WOOD-ENGRAVING IN DANGER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "An English Estimate of American Wood-Engraving," and the criticism of it in your issue of April 11, cannot help striking an American observer humorously. After the American school of wood-engravers not only has, in the quietest way, won the general admiration of the other part of the civilized world, but is really studied and imitated from Paris to St. Petersburg, and from Stockholm to Rome, while the English conservatives have for the last twenty years never turned their faces forward, for the simple reason that they had once discovered something by looking backward; and now that they try to imitate the Americans—we are to blame for it all. But, as the writer in the above-mentioned article says, "There are shortcomings in regard to book-illustrations." We admit this even if we accept the present method of magazine illustration as good in general. It is certainly the only method possible at present to interest the public.

The making up of a magazine is not practically identical with the art of bookmaking, nor criticism of a magazine with criticism on bookmaking. Nevertheless, the illustrations (wood-engravings) in our magazines have greatly fallen off in interest to our public for some time, if we may judge from the meagre notices of the daily press for the last two years. In particular there were the long war articles and physical and geographical articles in the *Century*, which left little space for artistic efforts either for artists or engravers; and we find there also, in other work which could be more broadly and artistically treated, a tendency to bring out details without regard to the harmony of the whole—a kind of amateur work, with little blacks and lights all over it very discouraging to the friends of the art. On the other hand, we find in *Harper's Magazine* a tendency to over-fineness and overcrowded pages, the result of reducing large original drawings and pictures to a small size. This deplorable mistake of our magazines generally has been noticed and criticised in Europe. It leads the public from a healthy pictorial study into a kind of map-examination. We may constantly observe that if any one opens a magazine, he will read for a while, keeping the book at the proper distance till he turns a page, when up goes the book, three or four inches nearer to his face, to make out one of these fine woodcuts, filled like a storehouse—the little light which was left by the engraver having vanished by filling up in the printing, thus leaving often a very dark, indistinct picture. So the dailies, as well as the public, are not much to blame for the falling off in interest in our fine wood-engravings.

Yet there is another feature even worse than this: the magazines have more or less, for the last two years, tried to get tone "process" reproductions instead of wood-engravings, and these have even appeared as frontispieces. The general public, not knowing about the manufacture of these things, have necessarily taken them for superior wood-engravings, since they are not mentioned as tone process anywhere. They must also frequently have felt the necessity of drawing the book still nearer, with a sensation of black sand flying in front of their eyes, owing to their blurred and foggy appearance. This is the latest improvement in American illustrations. Another kind of tone process is made on a lined plate; it appears more clean and distinct, but also more mechanical, flat, and artistically uninteresting.

As to the reproductive qualities of this process, we cannot understand how artists of renown, who are constantly preaching about distinct tones and values, can bear to see themselves represented in such a style. We need only point to Mr. Chase's pictures in *Harper's* March number—a contradiction of their own teachings. We sometimes hear artists prefer these blurred performances because they come nearer a facsimile of the artist; we know of many instances in which such a facsimile was kept, but the picture was lost. Still, we cannot quarrel with the artists if they choose this line, but to the combination of "process" with type in a book we have a right to object. There is nothing more artistic than harmony; in fact, it is the first law of all art. But the sharp-cut letterpress characters and the blurred impressions of "process" side by side are anything but agreeable to our eyes, and almost revolting.

It is much the same with the ornamental drawings of pen-and-ink process. This scratchy work may be all very artistic in itself, but can never join with the letterpress like a clear woodcut. There is a warmth in the line of the latter and a solidity which harmonize perfectly with good letterpress, and therefore the old method (especially that of the sixteenth century) is more agreeable, more impressive, and therefore more artistic, but not exactly cheaper.

We think we have pointed out the main evils at present visible in the way of good bookmaking with illustrations, and that it is only proper to inform the public, that they may be enabled to understand the difference between "process" and wood-engraving. To this end, the magazines ought to state, either on the page or in the table of contents, which is which. Meantime, with hearty good wishes to the craft of wood-engravers, we bid them see to it that

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the interest of the public in this highly cultivating art be kept alive, since every art must decline which does not find a public to appreciate it. AMEN.

AN ITEM IN BALLOT REFORM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A bill has been introduced in the Minnesota Legislature, and is now before the Judiciary Committee, to adopt the Rhines vote-recording machine in all general and special elections in the State.

This machine is the invention of Mr. J. W. Rhines of St. Paul. It seems to combine all the virtues of the Australian system with a number of other good points. The ordinary paging machine of the printer suggested the main idea to Mr. Rhines. The principle involved is that of the counting-machine, as in the odometer. It is old, time-tried, and absolutely accurate.

The practical machine is an oblong brass box about 10x14 inches, six inches deep, with a hinged cover. This box is placed on a small stand in the rear of the polling-room, and in plain sight of the judges and clerks of election. The voter is identified by the judges, and passes into the stall where the machine is. On raising the lid of the box, a screen is drawn up before the stall, shutting both voter and machine from view. The lid when raised discloses a number of keys not unlike organ stops. There are as many rows of keys as there are tickets in the field, and as many keys in a row as there are offices to be filled. The printed name of each candidate and the office to which he aspires are placed in the top of these keys.

The elector in voting presses down the key bearing the name of the candidate he wishes to support. The key remains down. In being depressed it has locked all the keys of other candidates to the same office, thus making it impossible for an elector to vote for more than one candidate to the same office; at the same time this key has imprinted indelibly, on a slip of paper beneath, a number—which is the total vote cast for that candidate at that time. The elector votes for each of the other offices in turn, in the same way, shuts down the lid of the box, thus ringing an alarm bell and dropping the screen in front, exposing machine and voter to the view of the judges. The box lid on being closed liberates all the keys, and the machine is ready for the next voter.

When the last elector has voted, the count is already made and recorded for each candidate. The turnstile at the judges' desk has recorded the total number of voters. The slip of paper bearing the record of the vote can be most easily preserved.

This system assures absolute secrecy of ballot and absolute accuracy of count. It requires a sort of an educational qualification, in that the keys must be read; and yet there is an ingenious scheme already proposed, that all Republican keys be colored red, all Democratic keys white, etc., so that an elector could vote any straight ticket he chose, and be relieved from all intellectual exertion further than distinguishing between two colors! It saves the expense of printing ballots, and, better than this, it does away with the tedious and inaccurate counting of paper ballots; as a consequence of this, contested elections will be a thing of the past.

Absolute secrecy being assured, bribery at elections will be dealt a most telling blow, for the briber can no longer be sure of his purchase. J. PAUL GOODE.

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA, April 8, 1889.

BY AND BY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The reviewer of Murray's 'New English Dictionary,' in the *Nation* of April 4, cites the expression *by and by* as a case in which the Dictionary falls short of perfection. This phrase, he says, "is used by Chaucer in the sense of nearness in space as well as of nearness in time." And he goes on to refer to a line in the Knight's Tale as one of the examples which "have not been given because they have not been received." Now the very first meaning given under the heading *by and by* is the following: "Of a succession of (persons or things): One by one, one after another, in order: a. in place." This is supported by four illustrations, all as apposite as the one mentioned by your reviewer. Indeed, the line from the Knight's Tale,

"Two yongë knightës lying by and by,"

could hardly be more exactly paralleled, for lexical purposes, than by the expression of much earlier date quoted from Robert of Brunne, in which, referring to the heads of the slain, we are told that "he laid them by and by."

In speaking of this colossal dictionary would it not be well for reviewers to imitate the caution of the scientist, who will not say "There are no ghosts in nature," but rather, "That part of the book of nature which I have read is silent touching the phenomena known as ghosts"? M. B. A.

STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA, April 6, 1889.

[There are not many persons, presumably, who suppose that the expression "one after another" conveys necessarily the idea of nearness in space, and is therefore equivalent to "close together, side by side"; at least if they do, they are not usually employed in defining words for dictionaries. It was to exclude the idea of succession, which may or may not involve the idea of nearness, that the line was cited from the Knight's Tale, to which the idea of nearness was essential. In a similar way in the Reeve's Tale the Miller's daughter is said to have had a bed to herself "in the same chamber by and by." The cautious scientist may fancy that she had a bed "in succession," whatever that may mean; the ordinary reader will suppose that she simply had one "close by," on account of the smallness of the room.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT CO. have in press Prof. Carl Justi's 'Diego Velasquez and his Times,' translated by Prof. A. H. Keane, and liberally illustrated; Pierre Paris's 'Manual of Ancient Sculpture,' edited and augmented by Jane E. Harrison; 'Half Hours with Humorous Authors,' by Charles Morris; 'Eight Hundred Miles in an Ambulance,' by Laura Winthrop Johnson; and 'Francis Bacon (Part II),' by John Nichol.

A collection of the verse of Mrs. Graham R. Janson, under the title, 'The Bird Bride: a Volume of Ballads and Sonnets,' is announced by Longmans, Green & Co.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will bring out in the fall as a subscription work a 'History of the Nineteenth Army Corps,' by Lieut.-Col. Richard B. Irwin. It will be accompanied by new maps of the campaigns and by portraits of commanders.

White & Allen have collected for publication in a popular volume Mrs. Martha J. Lamb's papers on the 'Inauguration of Washington in 1789.'

"Balaustion's Adventure," "Prince Hohenstiel-Schwangau," and "Fifine at the Fair" compose the eleventh volume of Browning's Poetical Works, published in this country by Macmillan & Co. "Red Cotton Night-Cap Country" and "The Inn Album" fill out the twelfth volume. The generous print of this edition adds to its acceptability as the author's edition with his latest, and perhaps final, revision.

There are a few bright passages, descriptive of life and scenery in the diamond mines, in 'An I.D.B. in South Africa' (John W. Lovell Co.), by Louise Vescelius-Sheldon, which remind one of that pleasant book of travels by the same author, 'Yankee Girls in Zulu Land.' These are set in a crude story with a childish plot, turning upon the detection of an "illicit diamond-buyer," as those dealers are called who buy stones secreted by the Kafir miners. Numerous illustrations, the best being by C. E. Graves, give to the book a very taking appearance which its contents, we regret to say, fail to justify.

'Home Gymnastics' (without apparatus) is a handsome and attractive book translated from the German of Angerstein and Eckler, the original having reached an eighth edition (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). It is adapted both for the well and the sick, and exhibits the several exercises by means of cuts based upon photographs. Anything which promotes a steady regard for health by way of counteracting sedentary habits, senseless costume, or discreditable ignorance of physiology and hygiene, is to be commended, and this work, though not the first of its kind, deserves to have its vogue, and is certain to do good. A happy thought has led to the grouping on one folded sheet that can be put upon the wall, of all the cuts scattered through the text.

All great cities are interested in the endeavors of any one of them to cope with the sewage problem. In Massachusetts, the State Board of Health has had the duty laid upon it of determining how to dispose of the sewage in the Mystic and Charles River valleys; these two streams emptying into Boston Harbor, and their united territory being really a part of the metropolitan district. The Board's Report (Senate document, No. 2, 1889) will repay reading. It has a number of excellent maps.

Curious for its maps and colored plates, as well as for its discussion, is the preliminary report on "Peach Yellows," by Erwin F. Smith, special agent of the Department of Agriculture. The peach flourishes or may be cultivated from the northeastern corner of Massachusetts as far west as the 100th meridian, though from the south end of Lake Michigan the line dips southerly till it reaches the 39th parallel. The southern confine extends from the southeastern corner of Virginia, parallel with the coast and well removed from the lowlands, almost to the Rio Grande. The peach reasserts itself throughout the Pacific Coast States.

We have received the first annual report of the Marine Biological Laboratory situated at Wood's Holl, Mass. It relates the history of the institution, an outgrowth of the seaside laboratory maintained for six years at Annisquam by the Boston Woman's Education Association and the Boston Society of Natural History, and records the achievements of the past year, which went little beyond the erection of a building and its equipment in an unsurpassed degree. The end in view is "the establishment of an ideal biological station,

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organized on a basis broad enough to represent all important features of the several types of laboratories hitherto known in Europe and America," instruction and investigation going hand-in-hand together—and both sexes, we will add, taking part in the management and in the studies: two "Lucretia Crocker Scholarships" are being raised. The laboratory for investigators will be open from June 3 to August 31; that for students, on July 10 for seven weeks, for regular courses in marine zoölogy and microscopical technique. The secretary is Miss A. D. Phillips, 23 Marlborough Street, Boston.

Part 3, vol. v., of the Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society at Worcester, Mass., appeals by its contents to a great variety of tastes. The obituaries are noticeable, and of the late Sydney Howard Gay it is related that, his family homestead at Hingham, Mass., having been burned, and the ground incorporated in the cemetery, his remains lie in the very spot occupied by the dwelling-house—a rare occurrence, surely. Mr. Edward Everett Hale has a paper on the naval history of the Revolution, a neglected topic; Prof. A. P. Peabody defines and illustrates "Hopkinsianism," with the aid of some hitherto unpublished correspondence between Roger Sherman and Samuel Hopkins; and Mr. Andrew McFarlane Davis discusses the site of the first college building at Cambridge, Mass., and fixes it near that of the Wadsworth House. The Librarian, Mr. Barton, brings to light from an old file of papers "Rules for the Society of Negroes, 1693," endorsed in the handwriting of Judge Sewall, March 23, 1713–14. These "Miserable Children of *Adam*, and of *Noah*," among many good moral resolutions, pledged themselves one to another (no doubt with a mental reservation) to afford no shelter to runaways; "but we will do what in us lies, that they may be discovered, and punished."

To the April number of the *Library* Mr. Blades contributes an interesting and valuable paper on "Signatures in Old Books." After describing some of the different methods of signing the sheets of manuscripts, in use from the thirteenth to the fifteenth century, he traces briefly the transition from manuscript to printed signatures, and illustrates the various steps in signature development by references to a number of early printed books. Thus he gives several examples of the use of manuscript signatures in addition to the well-known case of the Mazarin Bible, notes the occurrence of manuscript and printed signatures in the same volume, instancing the British Museum copy of Horace (Milan, 1474), in which the signatures as far as D are all inserted by the pen, while after that printed signatures are used. Then came signatures stamped in by hand with separate types, followed by signatures printed at the same time as the text, but placed at the extreme lower margin of the sheet; and finally some early examples are given of what he calls the normal signature, printed in the line just beneath the text, a method which seems to have been first used at Cologne.

An exceedingly suggestive paper on the "Depopulation of the Rural Districts" was recently (March 19) read before the Royal Statistical Society by Dr. Wm. Ogle. In it he showed that, so far as England was concerned, the country was not being depopulated in the proper sense of the term. During the thirty years between the censuses of 1851 and 1881, the aggregate rural population of the fifteen distinctively agricultural counties had not perceptibly decreased, a slight loss in the eastern counties being nearly balanced by a positive gain in the others. The character of the occupations of the people had changed in their relative proportions, there having been a decline in the number of farmers and farm-laborers, persons engaged in various handicrafts, as brickmakers, blacksmiths, etc., and liquor-dealers, while shopkeepers, house-servants, gardeners, and teachers had greatly increased. In one sense, however, it was strictly true that the towns were gaining at the expense of the country. The most energetic and vigorous members of the rural communities are constantly migrating into the manufacturing districts, where the higher mortality is resulting in a "gradual deterioration in the physique of the whole population." There can be no doubt that this is equally the case in this country, though not to so great an extent, and, accordingly, this fact gives the greater importance to every effort, in the older States especially, to make village and country life more attractive to the young. A well-sustained free library, for instance, may exert a powerful influence over the village boy in strengthening his natural affection for his birthplace, and making it harder for him to leave it when manhood comes.

— An event of more than ordinary interest to collectors is announced by the appearance of a catalogue of ninety-one manuscripts on vellum, illuminated by English, Byzantine, French, Flemish, Dutch, Italian, and Spanish artists of the seventh to the seventeenth century, chiefly from the famous Hamilton collection, and till lately in the possession of the Royal Museum in Berlin, accompanied by twelve plates of facsimiles. This remarkable collection is to be sold, under the auspices of Karl J. Trübner, Strassburg, at auction (unless previously disposed of by private contract) in London, on May 23, by Sotheby, Wilkinson & Hodge, and the circumstances of the sale seem to demand a word of explanation. In 1882, the whole Hamilton Palace collection of manuscripts was secured by the Royal Museum in Berlin, and it is understood that the price agreed upon was £74,000; the Prussian Government, however, granted only about £50,000 for the purchase of the collection. The Museum authorities hoped to obtain a supplemental grant which would enable them to keep the collection intact, but in this they have been disappointed, and are therefore forced to dispose of a portion of it. They retain, of course, the Botticelli Dante, and a number of other manuscripts, chiefly Italian, French, and Oriental.

— Of the ninety-one included in the catalogue, sixty are from the original Hamilton collection, and among them are some of its choicest treasures. Chief of these is the beautiful seventh-century manuscript of the Gospels, on purple vellum in letters of gold, which there is every reason to believe is the one written for Wilfrid of York by Anglo-Saxon scribes between 670 and 680, and which, after various wanderings, was presented to Henry the Eighth by Leo the Tenth. This manuscript has recently been carefully examined by Wattenbach, who supports this view of its origin, which is also confirmed by the investigations of De Rossi. For this manuscript alone it is said that £5,000 has been offered by an English dealer. Another manuscript of great artistic and literary value is a *Bestiarius*, the work of an English scribe about 1175, containing one hundred miniatures beautifully drawn, and colored in the style of that period. The Carolingian age is represented by a manuscript of the ninth century, considered upon internal evidence as probably written by an Irish scribe at St. Gall. Of Byzantine art at its best there are two specimens, a Greek Evangelistarium of the eleventh century, containing thirteen miniatures, and one of the twelfth century, also beautifully illuminated. Among the many interesting French manuscripts which deserve notice only one or two can be mentioned. Of the first half of the thirteenth century is a Josephus, with many finely executed miniatures in the earliest Gothic style; while the art of the fourteenth century is richly represented by a manuscript of the 'Roman de la Rose,' containing one hundred miniatures in grisaille, a volume of *Chansons* with twelve miniature portraits, a 'Généalogie de la sainte Vierge,' illustrated by a Norman artist, and several others. Among the many beautiful fifteenth century works 'Les illustres Malheureux' of Boccaccio, with eighty exquisite miniatures, and a French translation of Diodorus Siculus, illuminated by the celebrated Geofroy Tory for Francis the First, must not be omitted. The Italian school is represented by a fourteenth-century Bible with miniatures and illuminations, a splendid *Antiphonale* richly illustrated, and a manuscript of Columella, among others of the fifteenth century. Of German and Flemish art there are some fine examples of various dates, but we can mention only the French translation of St. Augustine's 'City of God' in two volumes, illustrated by Flemish artists of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, and considered one of the finest specimens of miniature art in existence. Books of hours, breviaries, and missals are well represented, and many of the manuscripts possess not only great beauty, but interesting historical associations. Even this imperfect sketch of the catalogue must make it evident that an opportunity, not likely to occur again, is here offered to secure for a public institution a collection which would furnish in itself an epitome of miniature art such as few European museums can surpass, or even equal. To the New York Metropolitan Museum it would be an invaluable acquisition, and it is to be hoped that an effort may be made to obtain it.

—We have received the first part of the catalogue of the historical library so generously bestowed on Cornell University by ex-President White. This portion is devoted to "The Protestant Reformation and its Forerunners," and if the task is completed in the same careful and elaborate manner, the catalogue will be worthy of the extensive and valuable collection which it so minutely describes. Mr. Burr, the compiler, has condensed in it a treasure of bibliographical information which will render it valuable as a work of reference to many students besides those who have access to the library itself. In looking over it, indeed, our only regret is that such a mass of rare historical material should not be situated in some centre of population where it would be more accessible to scholars in general. In many respects we presume that the collection is unique in this country. There is a MS. life of Savonarola, which Mr. Burr conjectures may be the original source of those of Pico and Burlamacchi. There is a copy of the commentaries on the Catechism by Archbishop Carranza, which was rigorously suppressed, and which gave to the Spanish Inquisition its most illustrious victim. There is a 1500 edition of the 'Taxes of the Penitentiary,' which ultra-Catholics are fond of assuming to be a post-Reformation forgery. It is in contemporary editions of the early German Reformers, however, that the collection is the richest, and the titles Erasmus, Von Hutten, Luther, Melanchthon, and others bear ample testimony to the enlightened industry of the collector and the bibliographical skill of the compiler.

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—There are some items, nevertheless, that surprise us by their absence. Under Flacius Illyricus we do not find the 'Catalogus Testium Veritatis,' nor under Théodore de Bèze his 'Histoire Ecclésiastique.' We cannot imagine the collection to be wanting in them, nor any reasonable limitation that should exclude them from this section of the catalogue. Of the 'Institutes' of Calvin there seems to be no copy of the original, but only a modern English version. Lefèvre d'Étaples is conspicuous by his absence, and so are the Spanish reformers. Of Juan de Valdés there is only Betts's translation of the 'Considerations,' and no copy of the 'Dos Diálogos' of Juan and his brother Alfonso—a book quite as significant in its way as the 'Colloquies' of Erasmus or the 'Epistolæ Obscurorum Virorum.' Juan Perez, Cipriano de Valera, and Francisco de Enzinas are likewise absent—in fact, all the writers reprinted with such pious care by Usóz y Rio in his "Reformistas Antiguos Españoles." We miss even so common a book as Adolfo de Castro's 'Protestantes Españoles,' in both its Spanish and English dress. If these remarks were offered as criticism, they would be manifestly unfair; but where a collection is so large and valuable as this, one cannot resist the temptation of pointing out the deficiencies which its custodians can readily fill. To satisfy our critical conscience, we will indicate a single trifling lapse—under Jerome Barlowe (p. 4) there ought to be a direct reference to Arber's Reprints.

—Who was Washington's schoolmaster? Aside from allusions to Hobby and Williams, this question is not answered in the standard biographies. Nor does it seem to have attracted the attention of antiquarians who, in this centennial year of his inauguration, hold every Washingtonian item, however trivial, worth its weight in gold. There is the more reason to trace out Washington's principal teacher because he was probably a convict. A statement to this effect appeared a dozen years ago in the London *Notes and Queries* (s. 5, vol. v, p. 501). The words are these:

"Mr. Washington was the second of five sons of parents distinguished neither for their rank nor fortune. . . . George—who, like most people thereabouts at that time, had no other education than reading, writing, and accounts, *which he was taught by a convict servant whom his father bought for a schoolmaster*—first set out in the world as surveyor of Orange County," etc.

—This extract is from the autobiography of the Rev. Jonathan Boucher, who, from 1760 till the Revolution, was a teacher and preacher in Washington's neighborhood, and who even became the tutor of Washington's stepson, Parke Custis. This connection, Boucher claims, "laid the foundation of a very particular intimacy and friendship" with the stepfather. The truth regarding Washington's tutor must have been known to Boucher, nor was he likely to write untruth in a private journal which he had no thought of publishing, and which, aside from fragments in *Notes and Queries*, still remains in manuscript. The testimony of Boucher was probably unknown to Sparks and Irving. If known to them and believed, they would doubtless have ignored it as beneath the dignity of history. Nowadays we are less squeamish. How gladly would we welcome such a description of Washington's tutor as was given of a contemporary pedagogue in that quarter by the following advertisement: "Ran away from Rev. D. Magill, Upper-Marlborough, Maryland, a servant, clothed with damask breeches and vest, black broadcloth coat, broadcloth cloak of copper colour, lined and trimmed with black, and wearing black stockings." So complete are the Old Bailey chronicles of transports shipped to the American plantations that the extraction of Washington's tutor would seem to be ascertainable.

—The increasing philological and theological interest in the Greek translations of the Old Testament is illustrated by Dr. Edwin Hatch's 'Essays in Biblical Greek' (Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), the substance of lectures delivered by him during his terms of office as Grinfield Lecturer on the Septuagint. His topics are: the value and use of the Septuagint; short studies of the meanings of words in Biblical Greek; psychological terms in Biblical Greek; early quotations from the Septuagint; composite quotations from the Septuagint; Origen's revision of the Lxx text of Job; the text of Ecclesiasticus. The most interesting critical question raised by the author relates to the possibility of going behind the three Septuagint recensions of Jerome's time, and reconstructing the text or texts from which these were formed. The solution of this question must be sought in the examination of quotations from the Septuagint in writings of the first two centuries of our era; and by way of applying this method, Dr. Hatch selects the citations from Psalms and Isaiah in Philo, Clement of Rome, Barnabas, and Justin Martyr, with some interesting results. The importance of the Septuagint for fixing the meaning of New Testament terms is becoming more and more apparent, and such work as Dr. Hatch has done will help to guard New Testament exegesis against a good deal of the looseness that still prevails; we may instance his sections on *arete* (as "glory, praise"), *deisidaimonia* ("superstition"), *diatheke* (always "covenant"), *dikaiosune* and *eleemosune* as interchangeable, and *musterion*. He has collected a large mass of material, which he treats with scholarly discrimination and breadth. The difficulties which he and others encounter in the examination of the Septuagint, force on our attention the necessity for a new edition of its text, a thoroughly critical handling of manuscripts, versions and quotations. If the time is not completely ripe for such an attempt, a beginning at least should be made, and the completion of the Cambridge edition will be hailed with warm satisfaction.

BALL'S HISTORY OF MATHEMATICS.

A Short Account of the History of Mathematics. By William W. Rouse Ball, Fellow and Assistant Tutor of Trinity College, Cambridge, and of the Inner Temple, Barrister at Law. Macmillan & Co. 1888. 8vo, pp. xxiii, 464.

Of all the departments of knowledge in which exact results are attainable either by reflection or experience, mathematics and astronomy seem to be the ones which—to borrow a term from the law—mankind first endeavored to codify. Astronomical speculations can be traced back, and finally fade away, into the mists of antiquity. But astronomy as a science has always depended upon mathematics, and we are justified in asserting that mathematics is the oldest of the sciences. We should not, perhaps, speak too strongly if we asserted that the history of mathematics is the history of the development of the human intellect. To treat in a satisfactory manner a subject so vast evidently requires a man not only of great learning, but of great intellectual power. The smaller the compass within which he is obliged to confine himself, the harder does the task become. To write anything worthy of the name of a history of mathematics in one volume would be more difficult than to write it in ten. He should, among other qualifications, be acquainted not only with the works of those mathematicians who have discovered new theorems and new methods, but also with the works of those who have written on the philosophy of mathematics; who, by coördinating, and giving symmetry and consistency to what is already known, have smoothed the way to further progress.

In broad general views Mr. Ball seems to be greatly lacking, and equally lacking in his knowledge of those writers who have taken such views. We will give a single example. Auguste Comte and his works have passed into history. It is considerably more than half a century since the publication of the first volume of his 'Philosophie Positive.' Its special title is 'Les Préliminaires Généraux et la Philosophie Mathématique.' It has been widely read by the mathematicians of Europe and America. It was translated into English by Professor Gillespie of Union College, himself a pupil of Comte and a graduate of the Polytechnique at Paris when Comte was regarded as the most brilliant professor in that most illustrious of mathematical schools. The influence of Comte's work on the history of mathematics has been very great. It can be traced alike in the ordinary text-books and in the profoundest treatises. Comte added no specific inventions or discoveries to mathematical science, not so much from inability as because he worked with different purposes and for different ends. He grasped almost all the mathematical knowledge of the ages which had preceded him, condensed it, pointed out the interdependence of its parts, gave it symmetry and coherency, and left a work which will always be regarded as one of the greatest intellectual achievements of the nineteenth century. Yet Mr. Ball does not even mention his name. Were his 'History of Mathematics' our only source of information, we should not know that the great teacher of teachers had ever lived. The general impression of Mr. Ball's book is that of a small boy trying to carry too large an armful of wood. He drops a stick here and a stick there, but comforts himself with the belief that he will get home with enough to build a fire.

Passing over the lack of broad and comprehensive views, let us look a little at the author's accuracy. On page 151 he attempts to give the origin and meaning of the word *Algebra*. He is treating of the life and works of the Arabian mathematician Alkarismi, who wrote a treatise on Algebra about A.D. 830. Of this treatise he says:

"The work is termed *Al-gebr we'l mukabala*; al-gebr, from which the word algebra is derived, means that any the same magnitude may be added to or subtracted from both sides of an equation; *al mukabala* means combination of like terms into a single term."

Of the words *al gebr*, the first is merely the article *the;* the noun *gebr* is the significant part. Arabic is a very rich and a very expressive language, but when Mr. Ball gets out of a single word all he has stated above as its meaning, not only does he get a great deal more than there is in it, but what he gets is not in it at all. The noun *gebr* is derived from the verb *gabara* (*g* pronounced in all cases like English *j* in jam), which means *to bind fast*, to *bind up*. From this comes the secondary meaning to bind together that which has been broken, to *restore* to its integrity that which has been separated. The noun *gebr* is a *nomen actionis* derived from the first form, or what in English grammar we call the active voice of the verb, and denotes the act of binding together the parts of a thing which has been broken or

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fractured. The best single word by which it can be translated into English is *restoration*. By the Arabian mathematicians it was used to denote the *restoration* of the term which is necessary to complete the square of a quadratic equation. At the time Alkarismi wrote, the solution of quadratic equations was the highest point that Arabic algebra had attained. Such an equation, before the completion of the square, was regarded as broken or out of joint, and the completion of the square *restored* it to its normal form. Of course this process implies the truth of the axiom that if equals be added to equals, the sums will be equal. But this was not the meaning of the word *gebr*; that word meant the *restoration* of the integrity of the equation. We have no room to discuss either the form or the meaning of the word *mukabala*, as Mr. Ball transliterates it, further than to say that it referred, not so much to the "reduction of like terms into a single term," as Mr. Ball has it, as to the reduction of the equation by the extraction of the square root. The best translation, in the fewest words, of the whole phrase, is *restoration and reduction*. In a footnote on page 98 of his 'Trigonometry and Double Algebra,' De Morgan has explained this phrase in the same manner, though not so fully. We presume De Morgan had never studied Arabic, at least not to any extent, and his transliteration of the Arabic words is very bad. But he understood all the circumstances of the case, and he was wonderfully acute in seeing just what the meaning must be, even if he did not know exactly how it got there.

Of course Mr. Ball gives an account of the celebrated controversy between Newton and Leibnitz and their respective partisans as to the invention of the calculus. We have no doubt that he means to be fair and impartial. But we have as little doubt that his patriotic prejudices have so warped his judgment that his account is worthless. His worship of Newton is a sort of idolatry. The great ability of Leibnitz he admits, but he leaves on the mind of the reader the impression that it was the ability of the charlatan. Mr. Ball's chapter on the "Life and Works of Newton" occupies fifty-seven pages, a little more than one-eighth of his whole book exclusive of the index, and he speaks of him or his works in more than fifty other places to which he refers in the index. To Leibnitz he gives six pages, mostly occupied in belittling the man and his works. He mentions him in about twenty other places, but most of these are in connection with the controversy with Newton. The most Mr. Ball can bring himself to admit is that "possibly" Leibnitz may have invented the calculus independently of Newton. Even this admission is given grudgingly in a parenthesis. In stating the divisions under which he will treat the history of modern mathematics, he says: "*In* the second place, we have the invention of the fluxional or differential calculus about 1666 (and possibly an independent invention of it in 1674)" (p. 232). Although Mr. Ball mentions no names, yet every one will at once recognize, what he afterwards in his more detailed account expressly states, that Newton and Leibnitz are alluded to. Of course it is not possible in a review to enter into the merits of a controversy which occupies so prominent a place in the history of mathematics. We only wish to show the spirit in which Mr. Ball writes. We will also remark that the almost unanimous opinion of all mathematicians of the present day, who are acquainted with the history of mathematics during the seventeenth century, is that Newton invented the essential features of the method of fluxions eight or nine years before Leibnitz invented the differential calculus; that Leibnitz's invention was made in entire independence of Newton's, and was far superior to Newton's in form, as is proved by its complete supersedure of Newton's method even in England. Fluxions are matters of history, differentials are taught in our schools. That the differential calculus was published nine years before any account of the fluxional method was put in type, is stated by Mr. Ball and is disputed by nobody. It is generally admitted that Newton invented the method of fluxions in 1665 or 1666, but he kept it to himself until 1669. He then began to communicate it to his friends, orally or in manuscript. In 1692 he explained it in two letters to Wallis, the Savillian professor of geometry at Oxford, and Wallis published it in the second volume of his works in 1693. This was the first printed publication of the method. The first formal publication of the method by Newton himself was in 1704, when it appeared as an appendix to his work on optics.

Leibnitz claimed to have invented the calculus in 1674 in entire independence of Newton. During the present century Leibnitz's notebooks have been discovered, and from them it is certain that he was using the differential calculus in 1675. He published a full account of it in 1684, nine years before any publication of Newton's method; and during those nine years it spread over all continental Europe wherever mathematics was cultivated, became firmly established, and led to many brilliant discoveries. At the present day the priority of Newton's discovery is not denied. The only question of interest now is, Did Leibnitz invent it independently, or did he manage in some way to get hold of Newton's unpublished method, and, after changing its form, publish it as his own? As we have stated above, the almost unanimous opinion of those competent to judge is, that he was an independent inventor. Mr. Ball thinks differently, and his theory of the matter is curious and original. In January, 1673, Leibnitz visited London. He left London and went to Paris in March. While in London he became acquainted with several of Newton's friends, among others with Collins and Oldenburg. He corresponded with them after he left London. The great controversy commenced in 1708, and Newton himself took it up in 1711. From that time until 1716, the year of Leibnitz's death, it was carried on with a ferocity which to men of the present time is almost incomprehensible. In fact, for half a century after Leibnitz's death, the mention of his name affected the English mathematicians much as the red flag of the *toreador* affects the bull.

Now for Mr. Ball's theory; we have italicized two words in our extract in order to show its full force:

"For myself, I think that in this correspondence from 1709 to 1716 Leibnitz did honestly believe he had invented the subject independently of Newton; but he was writing from memory of what had happened nearly forty years before, and I *suspect* that the manuscripts of Newton, which he privately admitted that he saw in 1676, *may* have been seen in 1673, and were far more important than he recollected later."

In other words, in 1709, Leibnitz had forgotten that in 1673 he stole the calculus from Collins or Oldenburg or some other friend to whom Newton had communicated it; and all the rancor and bitterness of the dispute, all the rummaging of old documents, all the representations of facts on both sides in every conceivable form of distortion that intervenes between downright lying and sober truthfulness, failed to jog his memory. But it is impossible to convict Leibnitz in 1673 and acquit him in 1709 in this way. In 1699, Nicolas Fatio de Duillers, a Swiss mathematician residing in London, had communicated to the Royal Society a paper on a celebrated mathematical problem, and in it had insinuated that Leibnitz might have borrowed from Newton, but preferred to leave the decision of the matter to those better acquainted with the facts than himself. To this Leibnitz replied, calmly but emphatically asserting his independent invention of the calculus. Whether this arose from dishonesty or failure of memory, Mr. Ball does not inform us. But he gives us data by which we can go back much further. On page 333, after denouncing Leibnitz's "duplicity" and various forms of dishonesty, he says: "Lastly, the letter to Newton in 1677 shows that Leibnitz was then in possession of the differential method, and apparently in as complete a form as that in which he published it in 1684."

This letter was written by Leibnitz to Oldenburg, to be communicated to Newton. Oldenburg was one of the men who, as Mr. Ball suspects, may have shown manuscripts of Newton to Leibnitz in 1673. Neither Oldenburg nor Newton on receiving this letter made any charge of plagiarism. Ten years afterwards, in a celebrated passage of the 'Principia' (published in 1687), Newton referred to this letter, but did not hint a suspicion that either in form or substance it had been borrowed from himself. If Leibnitz stole the calculus in 1673, he could hardly have forgotten the fact in 1677, four years (not forty) after the theft, and every one must be amazed at his audacity in exhibiting the stolen goods to the lawful owner.

There is a tone of disparagement running through almost everything that Mr. Ball says about Leibnitz. His summing up is (p. 344): "On the whole, I think his mathematical work is overrated." Every professional mathematician must have noticed how many of the methods which have been so wonderfully developed and so brilliantly applied during the present century, are traced back by those most profoundly versed in them to suggestions of Leibnitz, and they are cited as proofs of his genius. Mr. Ball "confesses and avoids" by saying: "But when a writer of manifold interests like Leibnitz throws out innumerable suggestions, some of them are likely to turn out valuable." Mr. Ball to the contrary notwithstanding, we think the mathematical reputation of Leibnitz more likely to increase than diminish as time goes on.

Every student of the differential calculus is aware of the fact that one of its principal instruments is a formula known as "Maclaurin's theorem." It is only a special case of "Taylor's theorem," and so obviously deducible from the latter that it hardly deserves a special name, though that may sometimes be convenient. In his account of Maclaurin Mr. Ball says (p. 361): "The *Treatise of Fluxions* published in 1742 was the first systematic exposition of this method. To the pure calculus he added the theorem, etc." He then gives the formula known as "Maclaurin's theorem," and his manner of obtaining it, which may be found in any text-book of the calculus (see Newcomb's Cal., p. 100). Now, Maclaurin did not discover the theorem, if so obvious a deduction from Taylor's theorem can be called a discovery, did not first use it, did not first "add it to the pure calculus," whatever that may mean, and did not first publish it to the world. That Mr. Ball knew this perfectly well, we think can be shown beyond any reasonable doubt. Maclaurin is one of his heroes, and the author of the "first systematic exposition" of the method of his great hero Newton. His admiration of his

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heroes must have effaced from his memory facts which he should have stated in his 'History,' and which he has met with over and over again in the course of his studies. He has evidently read many of De Morgan's works; what English mathematician of any pretence to learning has not? He says that De Morgan "was perhaps more deeply read in the philosophy and history of mathematics than any of his contemporaries," and he speaks especially of "his great treatise on the differential calculus published in 1842, which is a work of the highest ability." On page 74 of that work De Morgan speaks of Maclaurin's theorem, "which," he says, "should be called Stirling's theorem." In a foot-note he gives all the references necessary to vindicate the priority of Stirling, who published the theorem in his 'Methodus Differentialis' in 1730, twelve years before the publication of Maclaurin's 'Treatise of Fluxions.' At the beginning of the note, De Morgan says that Maclaurin "was the first who wrote a logical treatise on fluxions." Compare this with Mr. Ball's expression quoted above, and it is difficult to avoid the inference that he had read De Morgan's note. Further, the French mathematicians very generally say that the theorem belongs to Stirling.

Again, such a well-known text-book as Todhunter's 'Differential Calculus,' perhaps more widely used in England than any other, states (p. 74) that the theorem is usually called Maclaurin's, "though, as it had been given a few years previously by Stirling, it sometimes bears the name of the latter." Once more: Mr. J. Edwards, in his text-book of the Differential Calculus published in 1886 by the same firm that publishes Mr. Ball's work, says (p. 95): "In 1717 Stirling pointed out another form of Taylor's theorem, viz.;" he then gives the formula known as "Maclaurin's theorem," with explanations, and adds the remark: "It is generally known as *Maclaurin's Theorem*, though its publication by Maclaurin was not made until twenty-five years after its first discovery by Stirling." Mr. Edwards, of course, had in his mind Stirling's 'Lineæ tertii ordinis Newtonianæ,' published in the year he mentions, 1717. That work is not accessible to us, so that we are unable to verify his statement. But as all the other authorities within our reach agree in regarding the publication in Stirling's 'Methodus Differentialis' in 1730, twelve years before its publication by Maclaurin, as the first, we think it possible that Mr. Edwards, by a slip of memory, has confounded Stirling's two works. Mr. Ball, in his brief account of Stirling (p. 323), mentions both his works, but says nothing of his discovery of the theorem. Neither can Mr. Ball's omission to state the facts, and his unconditional claim of the theorem for Maclaurin, be excused on the ground that perhaps Maclaurin discovered the theorem independently of Stirling, and, as his influence on the history of mathematics was much greater than Stirling's, he deserves the credit. Such independent discoveries form a part, and a very interesting part, of the history of mathematics. It is, however, in the highest degree improbable that Maclaurin was unacquainted with the works of his compatriot.

On the whole, we should hesitate to make any statement of importance in regard to the history of mathematics based solely on Mr. Ball's authority. As a guide to the sources of information, however, his work is of great value, and, notwithstanding the errors, the omissions, the prejudices of this 'History,' it is still one of the most interesting books we have ever read. Nearly the whole of it will be intelligible to one whose scientific education has included only so much as is required to enter the freshman class of any American college. The greater part of it can be understood by those to whom the ordinary language of arithmetic, algebra, geometry, astronomy, and physics is comprehensible.

Mr. Ball's general plan is this: he divides the history into certain chronological periods. At the beginning of each period he gives a general account of it, and then follows a series of biographical sketches of the mathematicians who lived during the period and an account of their works. Some of these notices extend to only a few lines, others cover several pages; the biography of Newton, as we have before said, occupies one-eighth of the whole work. These biographies are by no means confined to the mathematical aspects of the lives of their subjects. There are numberless stories and anecdotes relating to their morals, their pecuniary successes and failures, their domestic life. Some of these stories have a bearing on their mathematical achievements, some are sad, some are humorous, all are interesting. The general impression produced upon the reader's mind is, that mathematicians, like men engaged in any other department of human activity, present every variety of character and fortune. At one extreme are men like Archimedes, every moment of whose long life was absorbed in thinking and writing, in inventing and constructing. At the other extremity we have the Italian Cardan, an illegitimate son of a lawyer, yet educated in the highest manner known to the sixteenth century. His life was one long intellectual and moral riot. One of the greatest of mathematicians, the most brilliant professor in the oldest and at that time perhaps the most illustrious university of Europe—Bologna—his income and his influence with the nobility and the Pope were based on his fame as an astrologer. At one time absorbed in laying the foundations of the theory of equations, at another, in a mad fit of rage, he was cutting off the ears of his own child. The Pope shielded him because he believed in his astrological skill. Finally, when seventy-five years old, having predicted that he should die on a certain day, when it arrived he committed suicide.

We have room for only a few specimens of Mr. Ball's anecdotes, and those we must condense. Most of our readers have heard the story of the interview between Laplace and Napoleon I. Napoleon said: "M. Laplace, they tell me you have written this large book on the system of the universe, and have never even mentioned its Creator." Laplace replied: "I had no need of that hypothesis." But perhaps Mr. Ball's appendix to the story is not so well known. Napoleon told the story to Lagrange (who, we will say, by way of parenthesis, was a greater mathematician than Laplace), and he answered: "That is a fine hypothesis; it explains a great many things." This from the life of Kepler is both serious and comic. Kepler was poor, but married a rich and beautiful widow. He found too late that "he had purchased pecuniary ease at the expense of domestic happiness." Finally, his wife went mad and died. Then he picked out "eleven girls whose merits and demerits he carefully analyzed in a paper which is still extant; he finally selected a wrong one." She led him a worse life than the widow.

Besides personal anecdotes, Mr. Ball gives a large number, scattered through his book, of curious problems and mathematical puzzles. One of these, a very simple one, derives its interest from the fact that it is attributed to Euclid and is probably more than two thousand years old: "A mule and a donkey were going to market laden with wheat. The mule said, 'If you gave me one measure I should carry twice as much as you; but if I gave you one we should bear equal burdens.' Tell me, learned geometrician, what were their burdens?"

Mr. Ball refers to Tartaglia, a mathematician of the sixteenth century, as authority for the statement that in his time "it was not uncommon at dessert to propose arithmetical questions to the company by way of amusement." To this Mr. Ball, after mentioning in general terms certain classes of problems which "may perhaps pass muster as amusing," appends the remark, "but it certainly seems a curious way of entertaining a pretty woman to insist on an answer to so absurd a question as what would 10 be if 4 were 6, a problem on which he [Tartaglia] evidently prided himself." We would suggest that there may be possibly a difference between proposing a question to a company generally, as Tartaglia states, and "insisting on an answer" from some individual "pretty woman." Neither do we understand how Mr. Ball finds the question "so absurd." Many of our older readers may perhaps recollect that the arithmetics of the early part of the present century often contained problems stated in rhyme. One of these which we happen to recollect ran thus:

"If the third of 6 be 3,
What will the fourth of 20 be?"

Both questions are simply problems in the "rule of three." The answer to the last is 7½, and the answer to Tartaglia's is 15. We fail to see where the absurdity comes in. Mr. Ball gives several examples of these "mathematical recreations." The following is another rather grim specimen:

"A ship, on board of which there are fifteen Turks and fifteen Christians, encounters a storm, and the pilot declares that in order to save the ship, one-half of the passengers must be thrown into the sea; the men are placed in a circle, and it is agreed that every ninth man must be cast overboard, reckoning from a certain point. In what manner must the men be arranged, so that the lot may fall exclusively upon the Turks?"

As a book of reference for the names, the dates, the general character of the works, and interesting facts in the lives of most of the eminent mathematicians of past times, and to some extent of the present time, Mr. Ball's book deserves a place in the library of every professional mathematician.

Mr. Ball says in his preface that he hopes at some future time to issue a second part, a "biographical index, . . . providing as complete a list of mathematicians as is possible. It will give the dates of the birth and death of the writer, a line to say for what he was distinguished, a list of his works, and, where possible, a reference to some authority where they are treated in detail." He has our warmest wishes that he may be able to realize his hopes. Such a work would be of the highest value.

THREE NOVELS.

Cressy. By Bret Harte. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Nine Men's Morrice. Stories collected and recollected by Walter Herries Pollock. Longmans, Green & Co.

Our Uncle and Our Aunt. By Amarala Martin. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THE more Western stories we read, the less we are tempted to advise others to read them. Most of the people written about are so irreclaimably vulgar in their language, ideas, and manners as to make association with them in literature as disagreeable as it would be in real life. Such a sketch as 'Cressy' shows how diffi-

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cult it is for even a very clever writer to make sheer vulgarity interesting, for if 'Cressy' is not vulgar, she is nothing. Howells succeeds in doing it, but then he has a genius for this kind of writing, and would by this time have founded a school, except that he is literally inimitable. Bret Harte, in his earlier stories, struck a new Western vein, which, while it lasted, was very rich. Now his literary ventures seem to be of a "prospecting" turn, and the yield of "pay ore" to be less. The facility of narrative, the power of sympathy, the pathos and humor, all are here; but the incidents are improbable, the characters are invented and put together rather than created or drawn from nature, and the result is neither a photograph nor a romance.

Mr. Pollock's volume consists of nine stories, one of which, "Edged Tools," is the joint work of Mr. Pollock and Mr. Brander Matthews. Of these the most ambitious is "Lilith," which is also perhaps the most successful. They all deal more or less with the supernatural, and in this they show the author's naïveté, if not his wisdom. There is no field more tempting than the border-land between the real and the unreal, and none more dangerous, because the world is of a sceptical turn nowadays, and does not readily admit the existence of a personal devil or disembodied spirits, except as a matter of religious dogma. It will do for Sunday and church, but hardly passes muster in fiction, except when managed with skill amounting to genius. It is no reflection on Mr. Pollock to say that he had far better try some other field. He evidently has plenty of ability as a story-teller if he will, let us say, renounce the devil and all his works.

Of all the books that have been written with the purpose of ameliorating the condition of women, there are few that will prove more effective upon the mind of the average voter, with whom the decision of the question finally rests, than 'Our Uncle and Our Aunt.' The dry bones of argument and fact are thrown into the form of a lively tale, in which Uncle Sam and his wife—has he hitherto been supposed to be a bachelor?—play a conspicuous part; and the nearly impossible feat is accomplished of awakening an interest in characters which exist for the purpose of carrying on a discussion. The warmth and fervor of the pleading, and at the same time its restraint and moderation, commend it to every lover of good argument; and the skill with which government is personified in the person of a good-natured, unthinking, tyrannical old fellow, who has no idea that his wife cares for any separate existence of her own, lends that concreteness to the presentation of the case which reasoning must have if it is to produce any effect upon minds unaccustomed to abstractions. The book is said to have been written many years ago, and some of the legal abuses which it dwells upon have been remedied in some States of the Union, but none in all, and some in none. There is no reason to suppose that anything less than universal suffrage will make it lose its effectiveness.

The aunt begins by being a gentle and timid woman, quite incapable of opposing her husband in anything. "Marriage had made that couple one, and that one was my uncle. So fully was his wife's identity lost that she was never individualized by her own name, but simply called Aunt Sam." By degrees she gains courage, and even ends by making a public speech on the subject of women's voting. The following quotations will show the scope of the book:

"'If a woman had the ballot, she would only duplicate her husband's vote.' And if she did, what is the harm? Do not fathers and sons do the same, and is either disqualified on that account? 'A woman would *not* vote as her husband, and thus the home would be broken up.' The last century has established the fact that woman can endure all kinds of political differences and persecutions without leaving her home. Are we to understand, then, that man cannot submit to a fair political expression from woman? Is her nearest friend, protector, and *fair representative* unable to tolerate her honest convictions?"

"'But, honest, now,' said Uncle Sam, in a confidential, half-persuasive manner, 'wouldn't you be happier with a home of your own and your husband and children around you?' 'That, sir, if you'll think, is an impossible combination; for a woman with a husband cannot have a home of her *own*.'"

In a dream of the American heaven the very amusing idea is carried out of finding the women subject to the same disabilities which they enjoy on earth. "The speaker raised a neatly folded pair of wings and soared lightly around me, keeping close to the ground. 'You see the women's wings are always clipped. It is a wise provision of the law, our guardians say, as otherwise we might fly too high for our own good.'" The whole sad tale of woman's wrongs can hardly be put in a more moving form than this.

Pen and Powder. By Frank B. Wilkie. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1888.

THIS book is not history, and does not claim to be. It is a compilation of independent articles forming a clever and entertaining combination of history, biography, and fiction. The author thinks that justice has not been done to the abilities and services of the newspaper correspondents who accompanied the Western armies during the war of the rebellion, and his main purpose is to apply a remedy by giving his own experience, and making the public better acquainted with his brothers of the pen. To that end, he says, he has made an effort to recall a class of events and the labors and personality of men concerning whom history and biography have been silent. Twenty-seven of his brethren are mentioned, the biographical sketches of many being excellent. Excellence, however, cannot be predicated of the sketches of distinguished soldiers. Grant, for example, is described as "a dark, thickset man" having "bright brown eyes," whereas Grant was not dark, not thickset, though compactly built, and had blue eyes. Indeed, neither Grant nor his services were seen aright by the author. Taking all the circumstances into consideration, the march from Fort Henry to Fort Donelson has been regarded, and was in fact, a creditable operation. But the author says of it: "The surrender of Fort Henry took place on February 6; on the 12th, six days later, the army of Gen. Grant had crossed the intervening space of eleven miles and environed Fort Donelson. Few such marches are recorded in history; none that I can recall in which less distance was made in more time. It must be regarded as unrivalled." The author qualified himself for criticising this mud march through snow and sleet by making it on a boat which steamed comfortably down the Tennessee and up the Cumberland. For the troops, however, whose march he says was so slow, the weather was "savage." The companies "had not brought their tents, and there was no protection whatever against the ice, snow, and chill winds that took possession of the region."

Speaking of the attack on Fort Donelson, the author says: "On Friday I had wandered around the line of Federal investment, trying to find Grant, but failing constantly. He was not at his headquarters; he was not apparently anywhere," etc. The trouble was, Grant did not know the correspondent was looking for him. If he had known it, surely he would have been "apparently" somewhere. To tell the whole story, Grant, knowing that a crisis was approaching, was looking for the correspondent, and instinctively galloped down to one of the steamboats to find him. As bad luck would have it, the correspondent had just gone ashore. Learning that, Grant let the battle go on. Fortunately, the troops, busy fighting, were wholly unconscious of the game of cross-purposes between their leader and their follower, and no serious consequences resulted.

The book shows no love for the Union cause or for the Union generals, except, perhaps, for McClellan, Steele, and Sturgis. The author says he assured the rebel prisoners at Fort Donelson that they would be soon exchanged or paroled, but that he was mistaken. "They were," he says, "needed to grace the triumph of a conqueror," and notwithstanding it was "savagely cold, and they were without proper covering, they were sent mainly to Chicago, where they stimulated an apathetic patriotism, and thousands of them left their bones in an indistinguishable grave near the site of Camp Douglas." There is no lack of sympathy in the book for suffering Southerners.

In July, 1862, the author "went to Washington in the interest of the Chicago *Times*." Those who remember the course which the Chicago *Times* took during the war will not be surprised to find this book speaking of Seward's "little bell," of the Washington "bastile," and saying:

"Washington, at the time I went there, was a cesspool into which drained all the iniquity and filth of the nation. It was filled with runaway negroes, contractors, adventurers, office-seekers, gamblers, confidence men, courtesans, uniformed officers shirking duty, and the riff-raff, the offscourings of all creation. Except Whitelaw Reid and Ben Perley Poore, the correspondents stationed there were nobodies. Universal drunkenness prevailed. Drunkenness, gambling, and other debasing habits were the occupation, the amusement of residents and visitors. Seward's little bell was tinkling at brief intervals, and the old Capitol Prison had its due quota of inmates."

Properly enough, the writer for the Chicago *Times* "determined to return to the West, where there was something for a correspondent to do besides playing poker and being smothered by a press of courtesans, filthy contractors, shoulder-strapped military men, and all the other disreputable and disagreeable characters that made the large majority of the population of the capital." Of course the determination to leave this Sodom and go West was brought about by the moral sense of the Chicago *Times*'s correspondent, and not by the sound of Seward's little bell.

The author tells with remarkable clearness how Junius Henri Browne, then in St. Louis, wrote and the New York *Tribune* published a full and graphic account of the battle of Pea Ridge, which Browne did not witness, and about which he knew nothing. A large part of Browne's work is quoted "as a specimen of what can be done by a vivid imagination on the slim foundation of one fact and a rumor—the former that Sigel was with the Federals, the latter that there had been a two-days' battle resulting in a defeat of the enemy." With Browne's performance before us, we are told by the author that "it is but justice to the correspondents to admit that, without their aid, the battles of the late war would never have been fully known by the public."

'Pen and Powder' throws many side-lights upon war history. Among other things, it shows that steamboats played an important part in the military operations in the West. Their berths afforded accommodations to cor-

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respondents, their cabins presented ample opportunities for observing draw-poker, and their decks were good sites from which to view the foolish manœuvres, the slow marches, and the useless slaughter of the Union troops in the surrounding theatres of war. Certainly a strong case may be made in favor of the functions of war correspondents in general, and of the services rendered by some of our correspondents in the late war; but it can hardly be said that it has been made in 'Pen and Powder,' though the book is entertaining.

Memoir of William Ellis, and an Account of His Conduct-Teaching. By Ethel E. Ellis. Longmans, Green & Co. 1888.

THE growth of the movement for popular education in England was largely the work of undistinguished practical reformers, who spent less time in agitation than in humble efforts of their own to teach the children whom they could reach. They used the pen also, but rather to make known their methods actually in operation and to explain their ideas than to induce the Government to do an undetermined something which, if it were done, might be a panacea. William Ellis has an honorable place among these men, and his career, bare as it is in ordinary biographical interest, is a lesson in practical charity well worth wide promulgation. He belonged to that class of Englishmen, of which this century has been fruitful, who have done more for the actual improvement of their fellow-men than many whose names are widely known as public men—the class of social reformers. Of French and Italian descent, he was the son of a London merchant, and while still under thirty entered the service of one of the first marine-insurance companies, was given its management when it was near ruin, made it a great financial success, and remained occupied with its business until his death at the age of eighty-one. He married the daughter of Sharon Turner, and lived frugally. "Others," he said, "may keep a carriage; I prefer to keep a conscience." He became rich, and maintained that high standard of commercial integrity which characterized his entrance on his important duties. He it was who, when there was some question raised, on occasion of a fire at the docks, whether marine insurance operated until after a ship had left her moorings, paid the claims and forced other companies to the same course. Once he paid a claim on a lost vessel merely because the owner incidentally stated that the policy had not been renewed by the oversight of a clerk. His conduct towards employees was similarly characterized; and when the company offered him a present of £10,000 a year over his salary, he refused to accept it unless the payment of all the other employees down to the porters was similarly raised.

It is not as a business man, however, that he is remembered. He was one of the group of young men who derived from Bentham. He early knew the Mills, and was a member of the two debating societies founded by the younger Mill, which were schools of political and social thought. At what age he began to be deeply moved by the sight of the poverty of the lower classes is not stated; but he came to the conclusion that it was largely preventable, and that the means to forestall it was the formation of character in the young by means of education in moral duties. Parental improvidence, largely induced by ignorance, was the cause; parental forethought was the cure. For the academical education he had a kind of contempt. His attitude towards it is illustrated by two stories: one of a lady who asked him to recommend a Spanish teacher for her daughter, already mistress of many languages, but no knowledge, and who received the reply, "Don't you think it would be a pity to give her another opportunity of advertising her ignorance?" and the second, of a gentleman consulting him about his son's education, who was sarcastically told that Mr. Ellis supposed that he would send him to some place where he would learn how it took Ulysses ten years to go from Troy to Ithaca with the aid of the gods, and would not learn how the voyage could be made now in twenty-four hours without their assistance. He was, however, not a bigoted reviler of classical and refined education. But he held that education was distinctly lacking in the essential points of inculcating rules of conduct for practical life, and in general in forming character. Conduct-teaching was his fixed idea; without this the rest was of little consequence.

He put his own hand to the work only when he was forty-six years old. He then assisted in opening schools in connection with some of the Moral-Suasion Chartists, principally that at the National Hall, Holborn, and those called the Birkbeck Schools in London, though he also gave aid and counsel to those started in the country. He himself, one of the busiest men of the city, where he spent all day, taught several evenings a week for years; he wrote, also, many text-books, and beyond this he contributed many thousand pounds from his private fortune. These schools included in their system the monitorial idea and object-teaching, and they were entirely secular. He was, moreover, a propagandist. He gave lectures at South Kensington and elsewhere. He at one time taught four of the children of the Prince Consort. At no time did he lose any opportunity of serviceableness or of spreading his projects. The results were highly satisfactory, until the Board Schools of London and the general progress of popular education relieved the necessity for such private efforts. It is to be said, too, that William Ellis kept himself out of public view in these benefactions—possibly because of the prejudice against secular education, proceeding from the ministers and clergy, and consequently directed against him personally as a well-known secularist. The portions of the biography which detail his ideas upon moral teaching—and it was only for this that he cared—and which illustrate the workings of his system of instruction, are of high value to such as are specially interested in this important and difficult element in popular education. Ellis's style is entirely destitute of charm, but his mind was full of clear sense.

It was impossible that a man of his convictions and his thorough knowledge of political economy should not think much of the larger question of the relation of the rich and poor. The sight of the use of riches in England affected him with the same directness as that of the destitution of the poor. His whole mind was bent on the problem of diminishing the sum of poverty, and all that poverty entails, in the world. He did not indulge socialistic ideas; but he found nothing surprising in the rising tide of that discontent which is willing to pull wealth down into the ditch with the poor, even though nothing come of the destruction. His view was, that the wealthy are to be allowed for as the poor are, by considering that their errors are equally the results of ignorance of their duties induced by insufficient moral training in social obligations. His more distinct criticism upon them is as follows: "The prevailing styles of living among the wealthy in the midst of privation cannot be reflected upon with unmixed satisfaction even by themselves. It may be given in to—it may be submitted to—it may be conformed to—it may be revelled in—but it CANNOT BE JUSTIFIED." The waste of riches, however, was in his mind only incidental, like indiscriminate charity. The security of property he regarded as the condition of industrial virtue, the underlying ground of those qualities of honesty, frugality, and application which are most important to well-being in the present age. Reform must proceed, he held, by efforts to prevent in individuals the improvidence to which social evils, in his opinion, were mainly due. He was naturally a Malthusian, but commonly he kept his views upon this subject inconspicuous, the state of popular thought being unfavorable to discussions of this sort. Taken altogether, his thoughts upon social conditions have the weight which belongs to a man acquainted with political economy, interested actively in philanthropy, and bringing to the subject a mind trained in business affairs. It is unfortunate that he did not leave some more adequate literary record of his convictions; but he had not the gift to write. His public service is his only memorial, and to it this biography is confined.

The Cruise of the Marchesa to Kamtchatka and New Guinea. By F. H. H. Guillemard, M.D. New ed. Scribner & Welford. 1889. 8vo, xvi, 455 pp. Maps and illustrations.

THE *Marchesa*, an auxiliary screw schooner yacht of 420 tons, owned and commanded by Mr. C. T. Kettlewell, left England in January, 1882, and proceeded by the Suez Canal route to Ceylon, Singapore, Formosa, the Liu-kiu (better known as Loo Choo) Islands and Japan. Between July and October a visit was made to Kamtchatka. In the spring and summer of 1883 explorations were made among the little known islands of the Sulu Archipelago, and some time was spent in visiting the territory of the North Borneo Company. Later the yacht touched at Sumbawa, Celebes, and other Malaysian islands and at various points in Dutch New Guinea, returning to England in April, 1884.

The objects of the voyage, besides the satisfaction of visiting new and little known parts of the Eastern world, were combined in a judicious mixture of sport and scientific research. Such an opportunity for study, recreation, and adventure would seem to offer the *ne plus ultra* of a naturalist's desires. Several such voyages of British yachtsmen have been recorded in book form during the last few years, and have contributed to the entertainment and instruction of thousands of readers. Lady Brassey's charming journals may be cited as a conspicuous example of this growing department of literature. The present volume is a second edition differing from the original two-volume edition in the omission of an historical chapter on Kamtchatka, of sundry technical appendices, and two colored plates. It practically furnishes the general reader all that the first edition contained of popular interest. It is beautifully printed and the illustrations are of the first quality. The text is admirably written—clear without formality, entertaining without flippancy, amusing, yet free from slang.

It would be, of course, impracticable to attempt any summary of the book as a whole which should do it justice. The voyage, which serves as a thread upon which are strung descriptions of Oriental scenery and people, of the striking features of the flora and fauna, is discreetly kept in the background, yet is sufficiently prominent to give the needed unity to the narrative. Among the most interesting bits of description is the account of the eastern shores of Formosa, which tower seven thou-

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sand feet or more above the waves in nearly vertical cliffs. These walls are nearly one-half higher than those of the Yosemite, and rise abruptly from the sea. Here and there at the mouth of some cañon is spread a short beach of boulders where a landing in the dry season may be had. In the wet season these openings discharge a prodigious amount of drainage, and at this time the whole coast is practically inaccessible. Another chapter which will be read with more than common interest is that which tells of the journey in Kamtchatka from Avatcha Bay through the interior and down the Kamtchatka River to the sea. We believe this to be the fullest and best account of the sublime volcanic peaks of the peninsula, where these orographic marvels reach a development varying from twelve to seventeen thousand feet in altitude. Within the same area elsewhere such an assemblage cannot be paralleled either in number, height, or perfection of conical form.

The book is an example of thoroughly good workmanship throughout, and we heartily commend it to our readers.

A Treatise of Elementary Biology. By R. J. Harvey Gibson, M.A., Lecturer on Botany in University College, Liverpool, etc. Longmans, Green & Co. 1889.

When Huxley and Martin, thirteen years ago, published their 'Practical Biology,' they opened up a method of study in biology, long pursued in Germany, which had not before received much encouragement from the English-speaking student. It was the introduction of exhaustive practical work, limited to a comparatively small number of organic types, in place of the discursive general treatment which, in a short college course, was supposed to cover both the animal and vegetable kingdoms. The biological student of to-day cares but little for old-fashioned zoölogy—indeed, he spurns the acquaintance of species and genera with a vigor only equal to that which was applied towards the acquirement of this knowledge by his predecessors. Morphology, histology, and embryology have all but usurped the place of systematic zoölogy and botany. In this departure from the beaten path of study, which has borne rich fruit, it can be plainly seen that the pupil has outstripped the master. While the latter was content with legitimately combining the new method with the old, the former has largely restricted himself to the one method alone. It is no longer ignorance for a naturalist not to know the name of a plant or an animal, but something in his favor; it is ignorance not to know from which tissue a certain organ originates, or in how far the vertebræ of a bird or reptile are, or are not, "homologous" or "homonomous" with the corresponding vertebræ of a fish or a quadruped. It is ignorance not to know the different phases of embryonic development of a given individual, but a knowledge of habits, of the relation which the individual holds to its surroundings, and of geographical distribution, is not considered absolutely necessary.

It is difficult to estimate the balance of good or bad that has resulted from this method of inquiry. That it has opened up a vast field of research, and of research of the highest order, cannot be questioned; but, at the same time, it is apparent that, at least to a certain extent, it is substituting a microcosm for a macrocosm. It narrows the mind to a contemplation of objects which are largely visible only under the microscope, and hides that which is apparent on the surface. We do not wish to be understood as undervaluing this form of research, for the light it has thrown upon certain phases of life and construction is in the nature of a revelation, but we believe that a too close and exclusive adherence to its methods is harmful, and destructive to the broader philosophic conception of the organic world. We are apt to miss the thread of nature in grappling with particles, and liable to the misconception that the construction of the universe is merely an embodiment of the construction of its entities, and nothing more.

The little volume before us is an exposition of the new school of biologists; it is an addition to literature which has developed from the germ sown by Huxley and Martin. Like all text-books of science which have been prepared with a certain amount of care and under the guidance of a fairly equipped student, it has something to recommend it, and will be found serviceable by a large number of students. But, like a host of other books which, without the aid of a master's mind, have been given to the world with the purpose of "filling a place" seemingly not yet occupied, it has its deficiencies and inaccuracies, and these, in the present instance, suggest the query, For what purpose was this book written? We are informed by the author that his principal motive was to acquaint the biological student with certain facts and conclusions of physics and chemistry which are considered essential to a proper appreciation of biological study, and to point out the dependence of biology on these two branches of physical inquiry. For this purpose we are furnished with preliminary dissertations on "Matter," "Energy," the "Classification of Chemical Compounds," "Laws of Chemical Change," the "Composition of the Atmosphere," etc. Whether the introduction of these features was a sufficient excuse for the publication of a work which has otherwise nothing specially distinctive about it, and which, from a narrowness of preparation, has but little to recommend it as a school-book—for which it is intended—may be a matter of diversity of opinion. To us, even with its added features, the book appears in no way superior to others that have preceded it.

Of what advantage, for instance, can it be to the biological student or any one else, to be told that "matter is divisible, but not infinitely so (save in imagination)"; that "practically, and even theoretically, there are limits to the divisibility of matter"; that "the practical limits of the divisibility of matter are soon reached"; that an atom "is itself indivisible by any means at present in our power"; or that "nearly every molecule is composed of two or more atoms"? What kind of proof, or semblance of proof, can be furnished for these assertions? It certainly seems unnecessary to trouble the biological student with considerations in other departments of science which are wholly of a theoretical character. Objection can also be made to the unnecessarily free use of strictly technical terms, and to the habit, prevalent with many biologists, of coining a new word for almost every process that takes place in nature. The following construction (p. 34) will illustrate the barbaric condition, if we may so term it, into which "elementary" biological language is drifting: "Changes concerned in the building up of protoplasm will therefore constitute *constructive metabolism* or *anabolism*; while the changes which take place in the decomposition of protoplasm may be termed collectively *destructive metabolism* or *katabolism*. The products of anabolism and katabolism will therefore be naturally *anastates* and *katastates* respectively."

For the rest of the book little need be said; it contains the usual good points and bad points that belong to books of its kind. Considerably more than one-half of the systematic portion deals with the anatomy and physiology of plant-life. The types illustrating the animal kingdoms are only Protamœba, Amœba, Obelia, the earth-worm, the lancelet, and the frog. How this limited selection can adapt itself to the requirements either of the college student or of the self-taught, it is difficult to understand. A text-book on biology with two of the more important groups (Crustacea, Mollusca) of the animal kingdom wholly ignored is, in one sense, certainly elementary. The illustrations are numerous and for the most part distinct.

Historic Families of Kentucky. First Series. By Thos. Marshall Green. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1889.

The three families treated of in this volume are the McDowells, the Logans, and the Allens, all three Scotch-Irish, a race which the author (for many years an editor at Maysville, more lately a correspondent for the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*) greatly admires for its stubborn combativeness. The writer of the book yields them nothing in this virtue, and is noted as the best hater in Kentucky. He invited, to his cost, a famous libel suit in 1879, and in 1887 he had a "personal difficulty" with a Democratic politician, which he survived. The book is most unreadable to the public at large, though the Kentuckian who knows many of the more than five hundred men and women named in the three hundred pages, either personally or as the parents and grandparents of his personal friends and acquaintances, will feel a passing interest in turning over the pages, and glancing at the account of well-remembered incidents. There is not enough said about any one man to make him even the hero of the moment, to call forth an interest in him that was not felt by the reader before. Nor is any art shown in giving substance to men who, in themselves, are hardly more than airy nothings. Thus, of Ben. Hardin Helm, son of Gov. John L. Helm, nothing is said but that he was born in 1831, graduated at West Point, studied law, joined the Confederate army in 1861, fought gallantly in it, rose to be general, and was killed at Chickamauga in September, 1863. The author of the book has ever been a strong Union man. Still, he nowhere states in so many words that Ben. Hardin Helm was the brother-in-law of Abraham Lincoln, only allowing it to be inferred from an account of the marriages of Robert S. Todd's daughters. He does not tell us that Helm was about to be nominated in the summer of 1860 for a great State office, in order to bring out and concentrate the Union sentiment of the State against the Breckinridge Democracy; that this near connection with Lincoln, the Republican nominee for the Presidency, made him "unavailable"; that after Lincoln's accession to office, Mr. and Mrs. Helm visited Mr. and Mrs. Lincoln at the White House, spending several days there; that Lincoln offered to appoint his brother-in-law a paymaster, and to send him off to New Mexico, which he declined; that from having been a strong Union man he was gradually drawn to the other side by the influence of his father, who, contrary to the Whig traditions, was intensely hostile to the Union cause.

The book thus lacks the attraction to the general reader which would arise from connecting its dreamy figures with the best known historic names and events—barring the old stories about Aaron Burr, told and heard quite too often already. It also lacks the charm of

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light and shade. The frailties of the men of his three great families are kept out of sight. We do not learn how many of them drank themselves to death (the percentage cannot have been small); how many were killed in a brawl growing out of a game of poker, etc. In short, the book is not at all racy. It was probably written, mainly, to be bought by the many living persons whose names occur in it, and by the sons and daughters of others now dead; and, in the memorable words of Mr. Lincoln, "for those who like that sort of a thing, it is just the sort of thing they will like."

How Men Propose. The Fateful Question and its Answers. Love Scenes from Popular Works of Fiction. Collected by Agnes Stevens. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1888.

WHEN a woman reads a novel, it is said that she always turns at once to the chapter containing the proposal—that being for her the real centre of interest in any book. The author of 'How Men Propose' has evidently manufactured her book on the theory that, if a woman likes to read one proposal in a book, *à fortiori* she will enjoy reading a hundred. Accordingly, she has selected the proposal scenes out of a hundred well-known, or not so well-known novels, and classified them under various heads—as, "the successful proposal," "the humble proposal," "the resultless proposal," and so on. The result is a very cloying book. It is not true—at least to our taste—that because a proposal is interesting, what a commercial traveller would call a "full line" of proposals is attractive. On the contrary, reading about proposals is altogether too much like eating candy: a surfeit produces indigestion and disgust with life. Moreover, our compiler seems to have overlooked the fact that, disconnected from the story, a proposal is to a great many minds rather uninteresting. It is what leads up to the grand climax—our previous acquaintance with the characters—that gives a zest to their love-making.

Nevertheless, to the student of human nature and lover of his kind, such a collection will suggest a good many curious inquiries. If such a work were exhaustive enough, it would give us a complete natural history of love-making, which might be made a basis of one branch of what Mr. Mallock calls the science of human nature. But then it would have to be very encyclopædic, and would have to embrace all races and tribes, times and countries. Anglo-Saxon courtship is only a small part of the whole field. And it is curious, by the way, to notice—judging from the collection before us—how simple and unsophisticated Anglo-Saxon love-making is, compared, let us say, with that of the French novel. The dread which the English or American lover always has lest he shall abandon himself to his feelings, gives his proceedings an air of reserve which, to a woman of another race, would seem very strange. But then, fortunately, in these matters, the attitude of the woman is adapted to her environment; and no doubt, from the primitive period when a stout club was the most cogent argument in a marriage proposal, women have always reconciled themselves to the facts of their situation.

A Selection of Cases on the Law of Quasi-Contracts. By William A. Keener, Story Professor of Law in Harvard University. 2 vols. Cambridge: Charles W. Sever.

THE familiar term "implied contracts" is ambiguous in that it includes contracts implied in fact, which are true contracts, with certain obligations which are enforced by the law as if they were contracts, though they lack essential elements of true contracts. Prof. Keener's adoption of a distinctive name for implied contracts of the latter kind is in the interest of clear thinking and sound reasoning on legal subjects. Those who cling to the ancient ways may be helped to overcome their distaste for innovation by noticing that the Supreme Court sanctions the use of the term *quasi*-contract (Steamship Co. vs. Joliffe, 2 Wall., 450).

The cases here selected, about four hundred in all, are arranged in chapters so as to bring out in sharp relief the legal principles contained in them. The first chapter treats of the nature of the obligation and the differences between it and contract and tort. The second chapter covers failure of consideration in cases of mistake, non-performance of contract by the defendant, and non-performance by the plaintiff of a condition of contract. In the remaining chapters the topics illustrated are benefits conferred without request, benefits conferred at request but not in the creation or performance of a contract, recovery of money paid under compulsion, and waiver of tort. The work ends with a carefully prepared index, in which a simple typographical device distinguishes *dicta* from decisions.

The absence of a summary of the whole matter and of headnotes to the individual cases is a serious hindrance to the use of the book by lawyers in active practice. But the want of headnotes could not be supplied without sacrificing the primary purpose of the author, which was to provide a book that could be used in the Harvard Law School in accordance with the method of instruction which Prof. Langdell brought into vogue. One of the characteristic, and not least valuable, features of that method is, that it requires the student to dig out for himself the questions involved and the reasons of decision in each case, and to state the result of his labors in the class-room, subject to the criticism of his fellow-students and the instructor. A summary of all the cases might, consistently with the limitations of the system of instruction, have been added; but this, we are told in the preface, is reserved for a treatise on the law of Quasi-Contracts. A cursory comparison of these cases with the parts of the standard text-books which purport to cover the same ground, is enough to convince any one that such a treatise is needed. Coming from the hands of a skilled workman, there can be no doubt that it will be of exceeding benefit to lawyers and judges.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Annual Statistician and Economist. 1889. Illustrated. San Francisco: L. P. McCarty. $4.
Balzac, H. de. Bureaucracy; or, The Civil-Service Reformer. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Beaufort, Duke of. Driving. Illustrated. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Bennett—Murray. A Handbook of Cryptogamic Botany. Illustrated. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
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Campbell, Helen. Prisoners of Poverty Abroad. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Chisholm, G. G. Longmans' New Atlas, Political and Physical, for the Use of Schools and Private Persons. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Crawford, F. M. Greifenstein. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Darmesteter, Prof. J. Shakespeare. [Classiques Populaires.] Paris: Lecène & Oudin.
Desdevises du Dezert, Prof. G. Don Carlos d'Aragon, Prince de Viane: Étude sur l'Espagne du Nord au XVe Siècle. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Dobson, A. The Poems and Plays of Oliver Goldsmith. Etchings by John Jellicoe and Herbert Railton. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co. $3.75.
Draper, L. C. An Essay on the Autographic Collections of the Signers of the Declaration of Independence and of the Constitution. Revised and enlarged from the Wisconsin Historical Collections. Burns & Son.
Dupuis, Prof. N. F. Elementary Synthetic Geometry of the Point, Line, and Circle in the Plane. Macmillan & Co. $1.10.
Graves, J. A. The School Hymnary. Charles E. Merrill.
Harris, Rev. S. S. Select Sermons. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Higginson, T. W. The Afternoon Landscape: Poems and Translations. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Hillard, Katharine. The Banquet (Il Convito) of Dante Alighieri. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.25.
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Jastrow, M. A Dictionary of the Targumim, the Talmud Babli and Yerushalmi, and the Midrashic Literature. Part III. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
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Lang, A. Lost Leaders. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Leffmann—Beam. Examination of Water for Sanitary and Technical Purposes. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. $1.25.
Lightner, Adna H. Shadow and Sunshine. George Munro.
Linton, W. J. Poems and Translations. London: John C. Nimmo. 12s. 6d.
Livermore, Mary A. My Story of the War: A Woman's Narrative of Four Years' Personal Experience in the Sanitary Service of the Rebellion. Hartford: A. D. Worthington & Co.
Musset, A. de. Three Novelettes: Margot, The Beauty-Spot, Croisilles. Brentano.
Peacock, E. A Glossary of Words Used in the Wapentakes of Manley and Corringham, Lincolnshire. 2d ed. 2 vols. Trübner & Co. 12s. 6d. each.
Peacock, T. B. Poems of the Plains, and Songs of the Solitudes. 3d ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Peard, Frances Mary. The Country Cousin: A Novel. Harper & Bros.
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The Amaranth and the Beryl. Willard Fracker & Co. 50 cents.
The Man from the West: A Novel. Pollard & Moss. 50 cents.
Twells, Rev. H. Colloquies on Preaching. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
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Ulmann, A. Frederick Struther's Romance. Brentano.
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